A STUDY FOR DETERMINING THE EXTENT TO WHICH THE PRESENT CURRICULUM PROVIDES FOR THE MORALE OF YOUTH

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A STUDY FOR DETERMINING THE EXTENT TO WHICH

THE PRESENT CURRICULUM PROVIDES

FOR THE MORALE OF YOUTH

by

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acceptance.

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Chairman of the Graduate
Committee

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PREFACE

One of the most difficult tasks in teaching school is providing experiences that will enable youth to establish rapport with their world. The author has been interested in and engaged in that task for many years.

That interest and that association manifested themselves into the desire to make this study. It is a reflection of many personalities. Many people have made contributions, either directly or indirectly. To each of them the author is grateful and expresses a sincere appreciation.

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CHAPTER I

PRESENTING THE PROBLEM

Morale contains much meaning for the future. In
recent years efforts have been diligently directed toward
understanding its nature and analyzing its development. In-
adequacies of educational practices have been analyzed and
interpreted, and revitalized programs have been constructed.
Experiences that build morale and conditions favorable to
its development have been consequential. That building and
maintaining morale is the task of the school is conceded.
There is need for an explicit plan of procedure converging
on the desired purpose - building morale.

THE PROBLEM

General statement. The purpose of this study is
to determine the extent to which the present curriculum pro-
vides for the morale of youth.

Specific problems. Specifically entailed in the
solution are these sub-problems: (1) discovering the re-
lationship between the educational program and the elements
composing morale; (2) evaluating procedures for effectiveness;
and (3) determining the means of motivating the factors of
morale so that they permeate the entire being.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

Curriculum. The curriculum includes all of the
experiences which the school in any way utilizes or attempts
to influence.

Educational program. Experience offerings provid-
ed for and affected by the school compose the educational
program.

An experience. An experience has a beginning, a
middle, and an end. The concept "try" represents the be-
ginning; the thing that happens to the individual as a re-
sult of this initial step, this effort, is the experience.
The individual is then stimulated to make another effort.
If the entire process is not carried through, it is not com-
plete. To be of value it must be completed. Otherwise it
could not be called an experience.[1]

Morale. The American Association of School Admin-
istrators gives a lay definition which states that morale is
the factor that enables people as individuals or as groups

1. This explanation is from John Dewey as given by Dr. Ludd
M. Spivey, President of Florida Southern College, at
an assemblage of faculty members and students for a
discussion during the pre-session summer 1948, June
8-25.

to live up to their highest possibilities.[2] In a more technical explanation the Association states that morale is a characteristic of human behavior whose seat is the human will.[3] The Educational Policies Commission perceives morale to be a state of mind characterized by confidence and courage, a well-founded confidence in the value of one's ideals, a steel-cold courage which, over the long pull, makes victory for those ideals certain.[4] Another definition used by the American Association of School Administrators fills its place illustratively[5] -

Morale is:

The spine in your back,

The lift of your chin,

The grit in your craw,

The width of your grin,

The song on your lips,

And the faith deep within.

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2. American Association of School Administrators, Morale for a Free World, Twenty-second Yearbook, 1944, p. 27.

3. Ibid., p. 29.

4. Educational Policies Commission, Education and the Morale of a Free People, November, 1941, p. 3.

5. American Association of School Administrators, op. cit., p. 219.
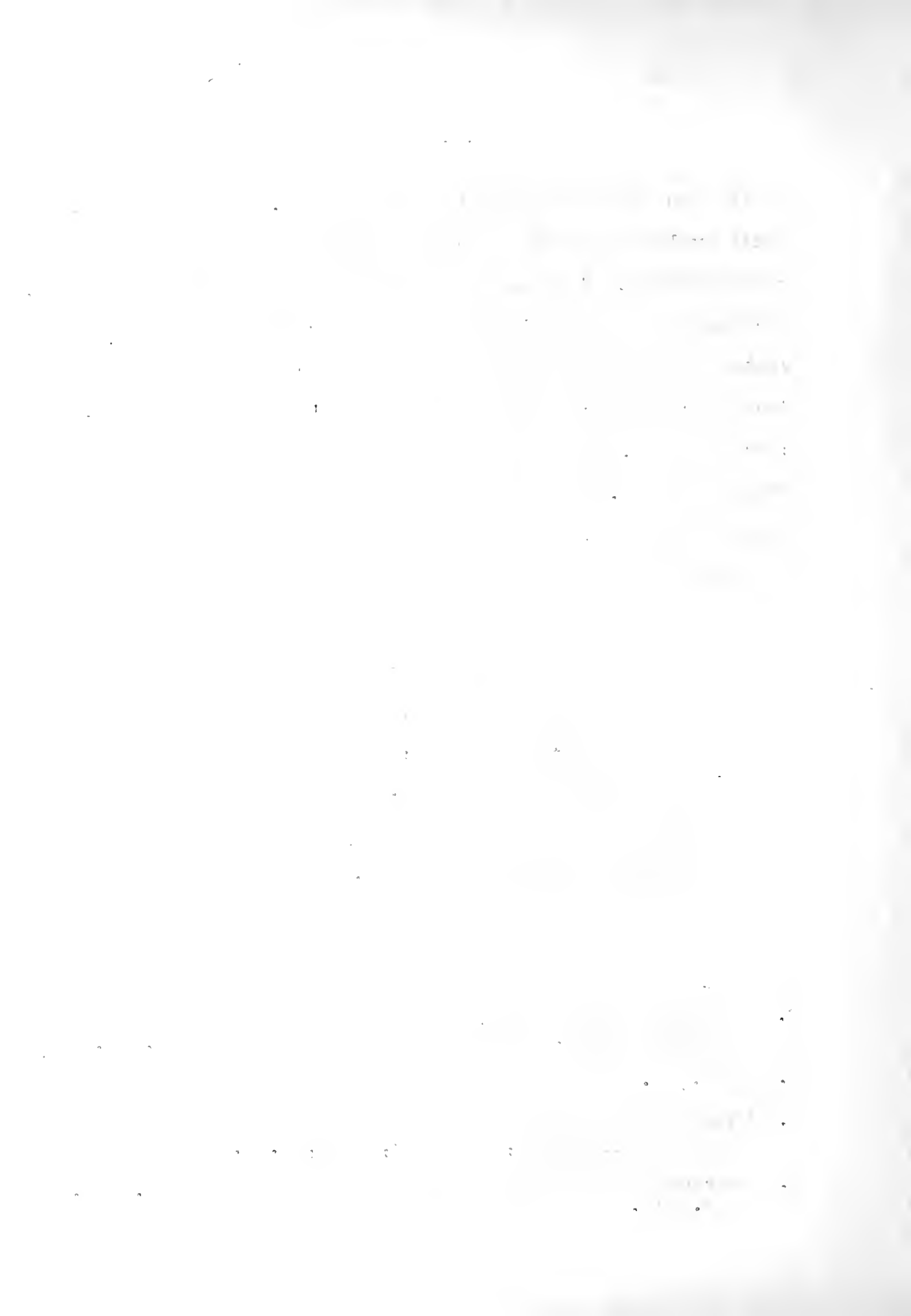
High and low morale. In distinguishing high and
low morale The American Association of School Administrators
has explained that an individual's morale is "high" when he
gives all and "low" when he gives only a small fraction of
what he has to give. The group and its members have high
morale when they act together with goodwill and when their
acceptance of leadership is not a mere passive obedience based
on habit or fear but a voluntary and hearty concert of action.[6]

Interrelation of individual and group morale. In-
dividual and group morale are interrelated continues the
American Association of School Administrators. Individual
morale helps to create group morale and is in turn created
by it. Moreover, individual morale is not always the same.
An individual may have high morale in one group and low morale
in another group.[7]

Delimitations. This problem will be concerned
particularly with (1) the means by which education can de-
velop a moral spirit that makes people strong in war or in
peace; (2) the feasibility of providing an educational pro-
gram focused on morale.

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6. American Association of School Administrators, Morale for
   a Free World, Twenty-second Yearbook, 1944, p. 28.
7. Ibid., p. 45.
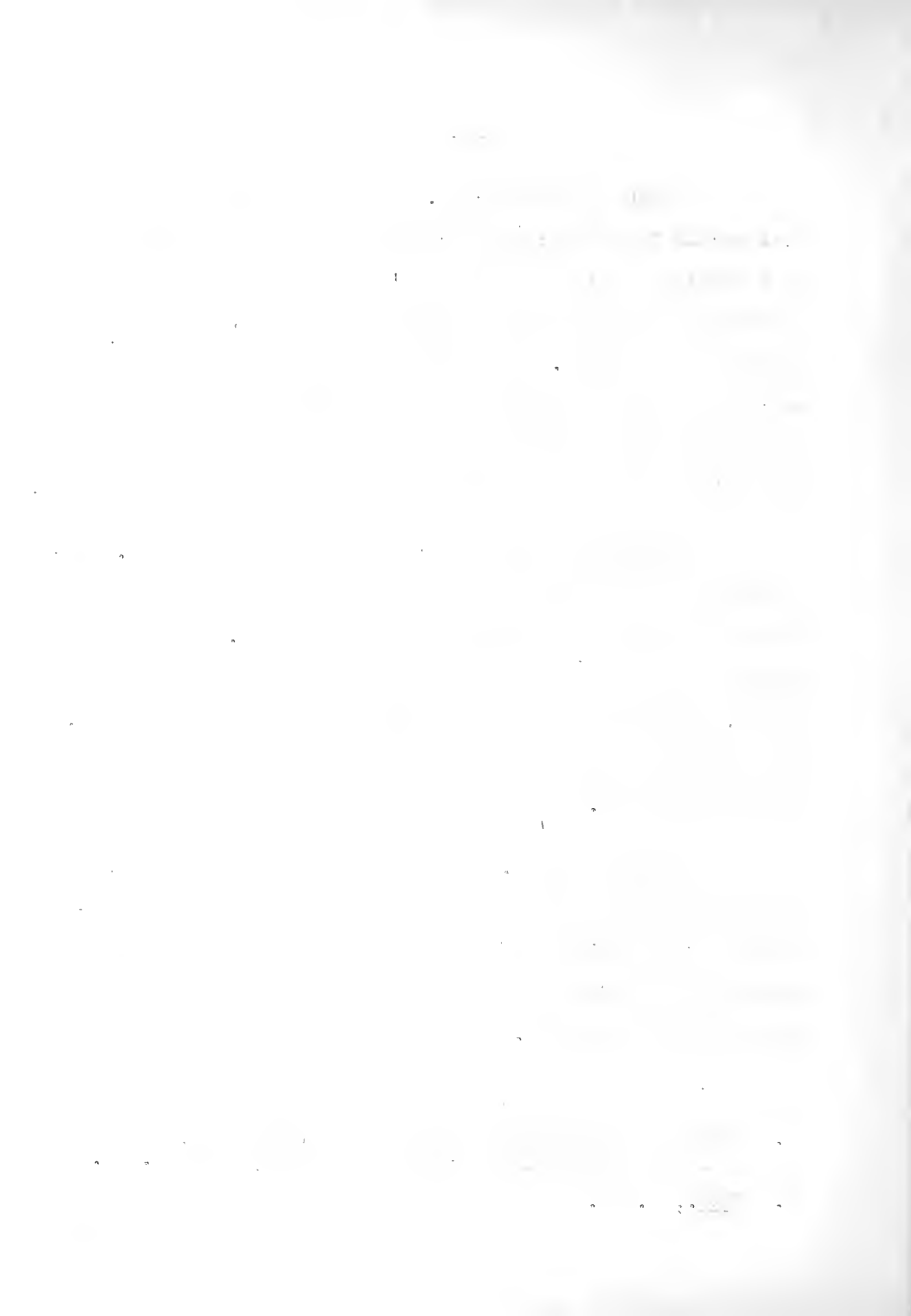
Basic hypotheses. Studies have revealed the in-
adequacies of our educational offerings for meeting the needs
of youth.

Morale holds the key to these needs.

In seeking morale, provision for the inadequacies
will be made.

History of the word. The American Association of
School Administrators[8] traces the term "morale" from the time
it came into general use, 1917-1918, to the present. Shortly
after the first World War it was treated in various publica-
tions. Then the word lay dormant for nearly two decades
again attracting the attention of American thinkers and writ-
ers after Munich. During those intervening years the scant
attention that it received arose from the concern of edu-
cators as to methods for its attainment.

With the fall of France it became a byword in
American thought and discussion. It symbolizes a new trend
in American thought as a quality essential to the prosecu-
tion of war, vital to the soldier in the field and to the
civilian on the home front. It reflects the fact that how
people feel affects powerfully what they do. It was through

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8. American Association of School Administrators, Morale for
   a Free World, Twenty-second Yearbook, 1944, pp. 11-12.
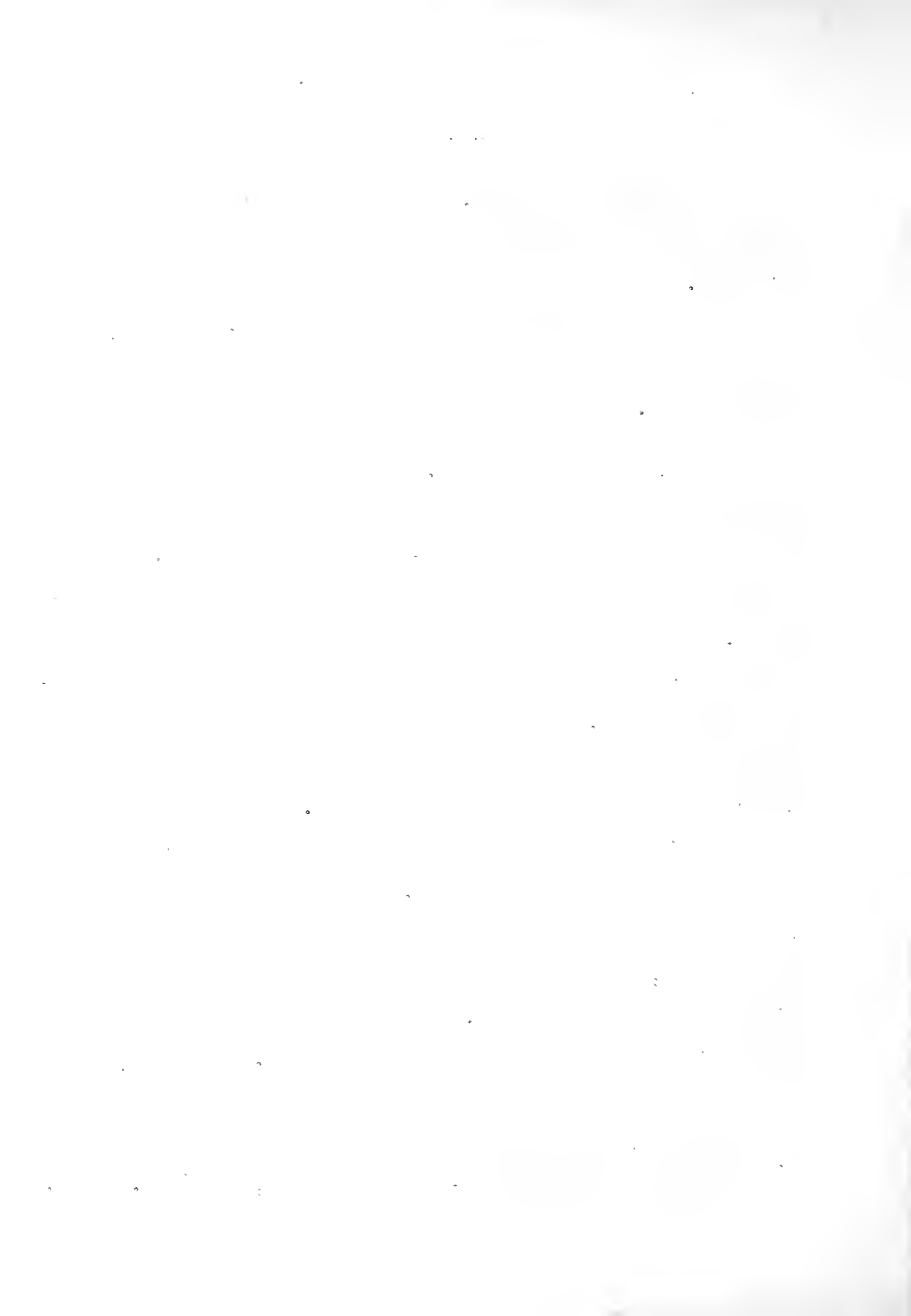
President Wilson and his Secretary of War, Newton D. Baker,
that the American people became acquainted with the concept
as a necessary quality of the soldier. They understood the
interrelations of morals and morale and the importance of
psychology as a factor in an army's achievement. Then the
tremendous importance of civilian morale as a factor in win-
ning the war was sensed.

Hocking conceived the army and nation as a mental
unit, each dependent upon the other for courage and good will.
He interprets this mental unit as the mind and will of a nation,
a thing intangible and invisible, and refers to it as the ele-
ment of morale.[9]

Before the close of the first World War psychologic-
al factors in both civil and military life were generally
recognized. From the fall of France to Pearl Harbor, America
was fervently engaged in analyzing and discussing the basic
principles of American political philosophy. American expe-
riences in the first World War were reviewed. The nature of
morale was examined in terms of psychology, psychiatry, re-
ligion, and morals. Analysis was made of its development
through various agencies. Everywhere emphasis was upon de-

9. William Ernest Hocking, Morale and Its Enemies, pp. 7-8
     as quoted by American Association of School Adminis-
     trators, Morale for a Free World, pp. 12-13.

veloping understanding, upon voluntary sacrifice to a common end. Then there evolved the idea of a transition from war to peace. If a moral spirit was effective in surviving a crisis of war, it could be a power for individual and common good in peace as well. With this transition education is challenged.[10]

America's experience with totalitarian countries indicates that these countries are not unmindful of educational procedures that produce morale. They use the technics in a manner which is suited to their own antidemocratic creed. They use totalitarian means to serve totalitarian ends. They know how to stir and direct emotion and to form the will, and they begin systematically to do so in the early and impressionable years. In employing the methods of indoctrination and emotional appeal, they deceive and mislead their own people, appeal to love of power or fear, arouse the combative emotions, and harden men's hearts. They excite and justify the selfish appetites, and by mass appeal and rigid discipline develop those elements of human nature which cause men to lose their individuality.

The democratic way is harder but not impossible. It is possible to feel intensely without loss of capacity to think. It is possible to arouse enthusiasm without conceal-

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10. American Association of School Administrators, <u>Morale for a Free World</u>, <u>Twenty-second Yearbook</u>, 1944, pp. 13-21.

ment of facts. It is possible to hate evils without hating the persons of whom they are the instruments. There is such a thing as an ardent love for truth coupled with ability to think effectively and identified with a personal responsibility and regard for humanity.[11]

THE NEED FOR THE STUDY

The situation. America is still evolving, still struggling toward ideals that move upward with enlightened progress. Leonard[12] points out that in working vigorously to adjust itself to the expansion of population, the school has served well in preparing the majority of youth to live in a complicated world. Those boys who have graduated from it have fought their hearts out on battlefields; they possessed traits which made them willing to fight and die for democracy. Any system that graduates pupils who will pay the supreme price to preserve freedom for all men has not failed.

Nevertheless, criticisms of the school reveal definite shortcomings as well as social issues Leonard continues. They point clearly to the fact that the secondary curriculum

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11. American Association of School Administrators, Morale for a Free World, Twenty-second Yearbook, 1944, pp. 13-21.

12. Paul J. Leonard, Developing the Secondary School Curriculum, p. 552.
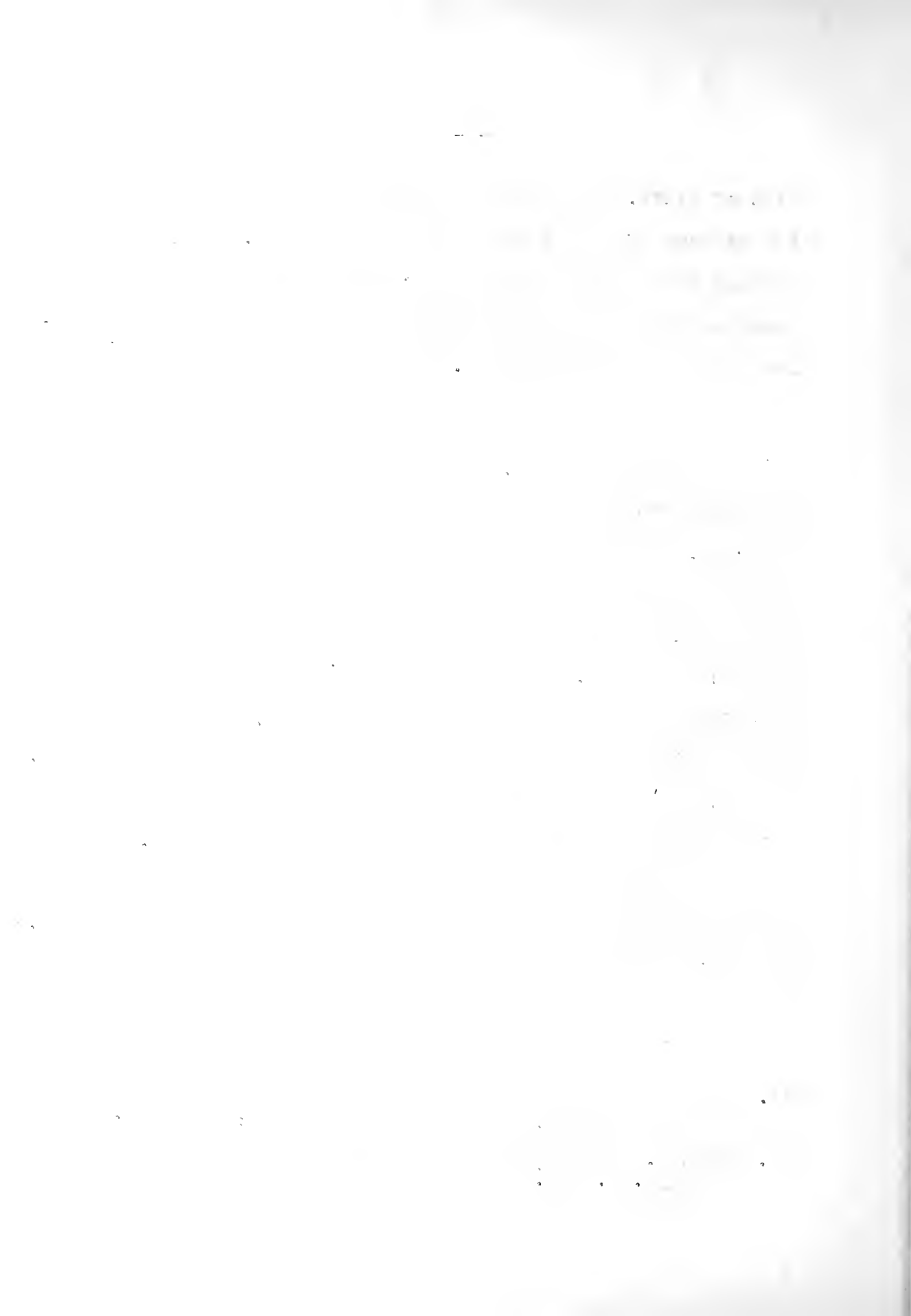
needs thorough study and reorganization to bring it in harmony
with the problems youth will be facing in the immediate years
ahead. In a crisis all social institutions come in for review
and criticism he says. During the war we heard that productive
machinery would function at full capacity as long as war con-
sumed its products, but after war men would walk the streets
again. It was contended, too, that the school had given
youth a great many shallow ideas and principles and had taught
no spiritual values. Moreover, youth itself accused. The
problems of family life had not been solved when twenty per
cent of the marriages end in divorce. There had been failure
to teach the essentials of economic and political life. There
had been continuous waste of material and human resources
through wars we had not been able to prevent. Adults had
given youth nothing from which they could develop any lasting
moral values.[13]

This moral phase is the crux of the need according
to High. He makes a plea for reviving the tried and proved.
The little red school house lacked almost every material and
academic tool he says, but it had one thing for which nothing
can compensate - moral purpose. He alleges that signs of

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13. Paul J. Leonard, Developing the Secondary School Curric-
    ulum, pp. 543-544.

sickness in the educational system lead to the conclusion
that the nature of the malady is not academic but moral; our
children must learn a reverence for what is true and sacred.
There is quoted the conclusion that was reached in 1939 after
three years' study by the Regents' Inquiry into secondary
school education in New York state as follows:

> In spite of the fact that New York's schools are as
> good as those in other states, we are turning out a
> vast number of boys and girls each year who are not
> ready for adult life. They have no idea what work
> means, what sorts of opportunities there are, how to
> look for work, or how to work when they find a job.
> They are not prepared to be useful citizens or to
> enter community or home life. They do not know how
> . to take care of their own bodies or minds. Few have
> implanted in them any seeds of individual inner life
> and growth, any skill in working with others, or any
> protection against mob hysteria, propaganda, shallow
> prejudice or economic gold bricks.

Attention is called to a poll three years ago in American in-
stitutions of higher learning which revealed that ninety-six
per cent of the hundreds of thousands of students enrolled
"devoted no time to the systematic study of ethics, the
science of the good life."[14]

It is within the scope of the school to make morale
the heritage of youth. Yet it must be conceded that there is
little specific planning toward that end. Rather the inade-

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14. Stanley High, "Our Schools Need More Than Our Money,"
     <u>Reader's</u> <u>Digest</u>, 308 (December, 1947), pp. 15-17.

quacy of present practices stands between youth and the goal. This might be epitomized in Leonard's inference that educational research has caused us to realize the inadequacy of our educational program in fixing skills, in imparting information, or in establishing desired behavior.[15]

Planned procedure must replace a random means of progression. Efficient method must replace an incidental or accidental arrival. The American Association of School Administrators lights the way toward the initial step in overcoming these inadequacies in their discernment that the democratic process is the essence of morale building.[16] Thus in formulating a program of improvement there is revealed in the beginning a definite basic inadequacy. Leonard says that teaching the meaning of democracy, the first and greatest goal of education, is one of the greatest present shortcomings.[17] The Educational Policies Commission adds impetus to Leonard's statement in their findings: (1) with few exceptions the schools have not analyzed the full demands of citizenship education in a democracy; (2) in virtually all schools the approach is fragmentary and incomplete; (3) the education

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15. Paul J. Leonard, Developing the Secondary School Curriculum, p. 245.

16. American Association of School Administrators, Morale for a Free World, Twenty-second Yearbook, 1944, p. 190.

17. Leonard, op. cit., p. 544.

program has often grown by chance accumulation of materials rather than by broad and systematic plan.[18]

Numbers of individuals come through the stress and strain in spite of the inadequate provision or as a result of a combination of influences - home, neighborhood, school, church, occupational group, character-forming groups. There are numbers of less favored individuals who do not.

Goodykoontz[19] says that although shortages in the curriculum cannot be measured easily, they are challenging. There are innumerable ideas about these shortages. Some observe that graduates cannot spell or follow directions. Others take notice of the increase in divorce, the mounting rate of juvenile delinquency, the evidences of intolerance, the increase in mental illness, buying, the conflict between capital and labor, the lack of Sabbath observance, the market in comics and radio thrillers. From these observances they make decisions as to what the schools should be teaching. A poll of experts conducted by American Magazine said the schools were inadequate in preparing young people for earning a living, for democratic citizenship, or for personal and family responsibilities. She concludes that although "life's problems change, the intent of

18. Educational Policies Commission, Learning the Ways of Democracy (1940), p. 119.

19. Bess Goodykoontz, "Shortages in the Curriculum," The Journal of the National Education Association, 37 (May, 1948), p. 280.

parents and the public continues steadfast in their insistence
that the schools prepare young people for meeting these problems."

Specific shortcomings. Brown[20] calls attention to
the deficiencies of education revealed during the years of war
following Pearl Harbor. First, there is the high rate of illit-
eracy - a total of 750,000 rejected because of less than fourth
grade ability although each local draft board was permitted to
induct ten per cent of its "quota" with less than this standard.
Then there were the rejections for physical and mental disabil-
ity - some 5,000,000 out of 22,000,000 by July 1, 1944. The
differences among communities and races indicated inequality
of health care and of educational opportunity. In presenting
figures concerning Selective Service rejectees of World War II,
he showed that of all those that were examined for military
service to December 31, 1944, only one in seven had no physical
defects.[21]

Brown found that half of both high school and col-
lege students who begin as freshmen drop out before graduation.
Taking a span of twelve years - from fifth grade to college
graduation - he found that there was in 1940 a mortality of
93.1 per cent - 931 out of each 1000 who start in the fifth
grade drop out along the way.[22]

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20. Francis J. Brown, Educational Sociology, p. 574.

21. Ibid., p. 465.

22. Ibid., pp. 278-279.

Brown's study revealed further that the average
soldier in World War I had completed only the sixth grade;
in World War II the average soldier had just entered his
junior year of high school.[23] More than half of those in the
Armed Forces gave "had to go to work" or "had to help at home"
as their reason for quitting school. The second most frequent
reason given was "didn't like school," and the third was "no
school near home." So Brown concludes that the basic factors
involved were low family income, inadequate school facilities,
and the failure on the part of the school to challenge either
the interest of the children or their parents.[24]

The American Association of School Administrators[25]
states that studies made by the American Youth Commission
and other agencies show that at least 50 per cent of those
pupils who leave secondary school before completing require-
ments for graduation do so for lack of financial resources.
It is also a well-known fact, they say, that many pupils who
leave before completing high school do so because of the ir-
relevancy of their studies to their lives and because their

23. Francis J. Brown, Educational Sociology, p. 259.

24. Ibid., pp. 279-280.

25. American Association of School Administrators, Morale
for a Free World, Twenty-second Yearbook, 1944, p. 90.

studies fail to provide them with information and skills that
are of significance to them. The average education of the
American adult today is about nine grades.

Carr[26] states that most cases of truancy are due
primarily to the school. There is an estimate of 9,000,000
delinquents, problem children, and children in danger he re-
ports. He says that the public schools of the United States
have hardly recognized the great problem of emotional edu-
cation. The vast majority of teachers are utterly untrained
in the first principles of mental hygiene and do not know the
significance of deviant behavior when it appears, he adds.

Carr has found that the roots of most criminal be-
havior lie in juvenile delinquency.[27] And actually from the
bombardment of Fort Sumpter to the Roosevelt rearmament pro-
gram of 1939, crime killed at least half as many Americans
as all of the wars of those seventy-eight years, he dis-
covered.[28] Brown[29] gathered from the report of the Federal
Bureau of Investigation, released in March, 1946, that there

26. Lowell Juilliard Carr, Delinquency Control, pp. 360-361.
27. Ibid., p. IX.
28. Ibid., p. 35.
29. Francis J. Brown, Educational Sociology, pp. 76-78.

was a rise of 12.4 per cent in crime - the largest increase
over the preceding year since 1930. The age of 17 stood out
as predominant among those arrested, and age 18 came next. Of
all persons arrested, 21 per cent were under 21.

Victor Cohn[30] in a recent survey of juvenile crime
adds impetus to the tragic implications of juvenile delin-
quency. This survey showed that 808 boys and girls under 21
were arrested for homicide in 1946; there were 256 under 18,
and 69 were 15 and under. In the first six months of 1947
there were 415 boys and girls under 21 who killed. Cohn col-
lected case histories and for eight months asked psychiatrists,
psychologists, and sociologists all over the country the ques-
tion, "Why?" He received one thousand answers. The special-
ists agreed that those stories must be told if Americans were
to understand the desperate need for helping thousands of
unhappy children whose plight those murders dramatized. Dr.
Leo Kanner, head of the children's psychiatric clinic at
Johns Hopkins Hospital, Baltimore, Maryland, agreed that the
sooner discovery, treatment, research probing into the sources
of human behavior, and prevention were started, the sooner the
death toll could be cut. He pointed out that the schools
could be the leaders.

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30. Victor Cohn, "Who Are the Guilty," a series of articles
    written for The Miami (Florida) Herald and The
    Minneapolis Tribune.

Research has established that delinquents are made and not born. On broken homes and family conflicts rest the chief responsibility for the condition. Cohn through Dr. Kanner's statements to his inquiries called attention to the vicious cycle of maladjustment that feeds itself. These unhappy youngsters grow up and have unhappy youngsters of their own. Thus the maladjustment continues. We must search out the maladjusted just as we now X-ray to find tuberculosis Dr. Kanner admonishes.

Torgerson[31] expresses the sentiment that the school is responsible for developing a program which will counteract the harmful effects of causal factors that originate outside the school. Pupils who suffer humiliation, neglect, rejection, and a deprivation of social, economic, and cultural influences in the home should be given the opportunity to live normal lives in a democratic school environment. When these victims of unfortunate out-of-school environment enjoy the good fortune of spending their school life under the tutelage of understanding teachers who consciously strive to enrich their sordid backgrounds by providing the cultural experiences that promote leadership, security, mastery, and success, many of their problems are diminished and tend to disappear Torgerson

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31. Theodore L. Torgerson, Studying Children, pp. 76-77.

insists. He adds that teachers need the assistance of psychologists, psychiatrists, social workers, and welfare agencies in rehabilitating those pupils whose problems are of so serious a nature that the teacher is not equipped to solve them. However, the school is responsible for a program of prevention based on two necessities: (1) early recognition of disabilities or their symptoms, and (2) the use of school practices which promote learning and normal adjustment.

Carr[32] expresses the sentiment that the first great area of school concern is to see that it provides a curriculum and a classroom experience that meets the needs of each individual child at each level of his development. The number of exceptional children in the United States probably exceeds the 9,000,000 estimate of delinquents, problem children, and children in danger. Many cases of truancy are due primarily to the school.

It is surprising, however, that the accomplishment is as great as it is considering the time factor, the small fraction of the total year in which schools are expected to do the enormous number of things entrusted to them in such a way that the desired morale results says The American Assoc-

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32. Lowell Juilliard Carr, Delinquency Control, p. 361.

iation of School Administrators.[33] The Association notes
further that this is a plea of leaders with vision for more
time, better facilities, better and better trained teachers,
and more cooperation with the home and other agencies whose
influence helps build or break morale. They call attention
to "left-over" time, the hours that often produce juvenile
delinquency. They recommend planning for a wise balance that
extra activities not completely absorb all time of youth in
some areas, for a better guidance program that a greater num-
ber of underprivileged youth take advantage of provided re-
sources, and for making provision for "left-over" time in
neglected areas.

The school is the logical center of initiative for
dealing with the problem of leisure time, Carr insists.[34] Yet
in 1938 there were 10,000,000 children in the United States
for whom there was no leisure time provision. And because
of the bearing of wholesome recreation on morale, in 1940 the
matter of leisure time increased in importance as the nation
girded itself to meet the threat of totalitarian powers.[35]

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33. American Association of School Administrators, Morale
     for a Free World, Twenty-second Yearbook, 1944, pp.
     168-169.

34. Lowell Julliard Carr, Delinquency Control, p. 361.

35. Ibid., p. 247.
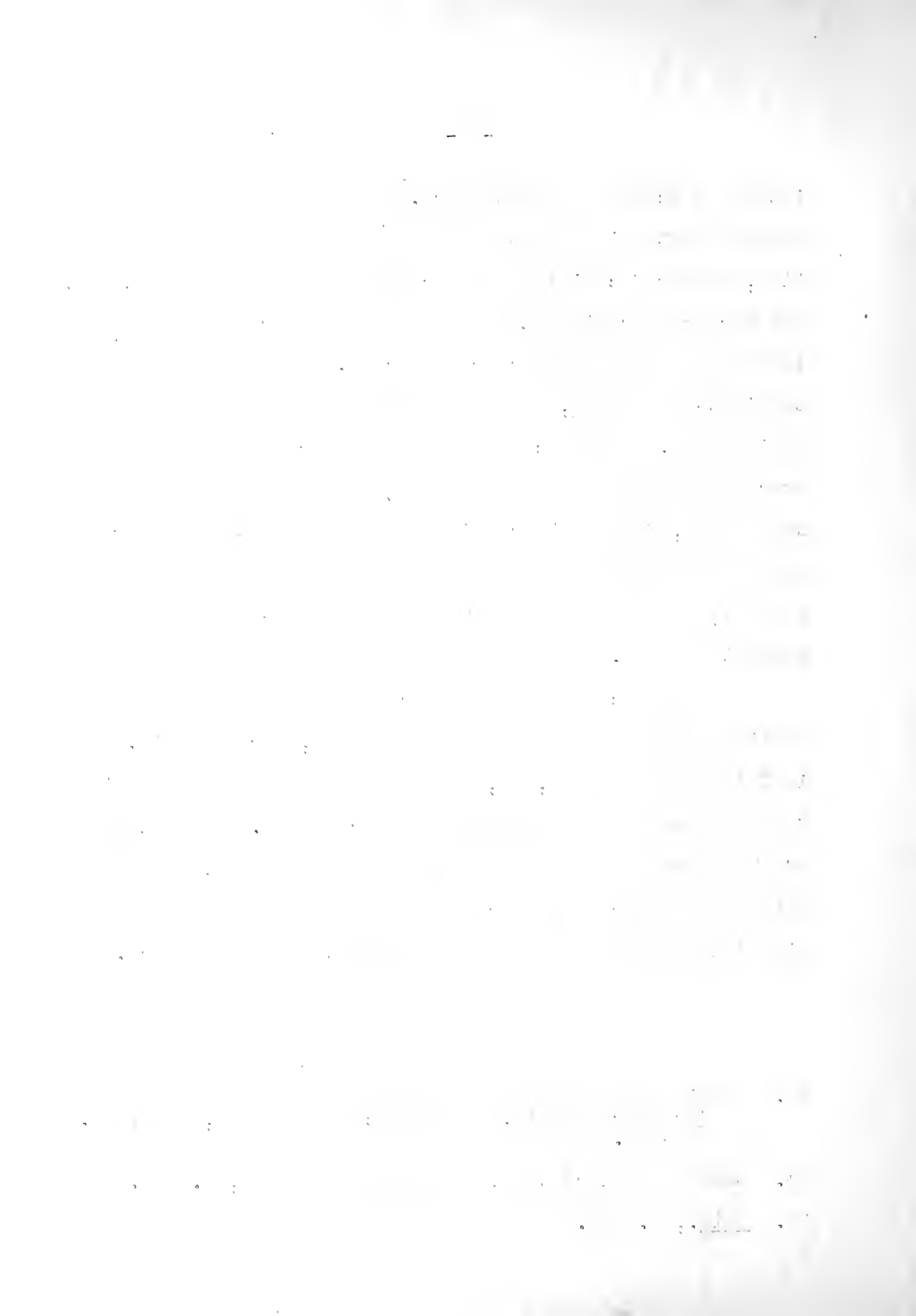
Brown[36] has observed that for long decades the problem of minority groups in American life was wholly ignored by education. It has been largely written this century that the interaction of these divergent groups has been of serious concern to sociologists, educators, and now to the general population. Some educators are now contributing to the learning of desirable attitudes and to the unlearning of unsound and damaging ones in respect to race and cultural differences.[37]

Brown's[38] collected data on marriage and divorce made it possible to estimate the future outcome from the present trends which, if continued, will result in one divorce to each two marriages by 1965. Leonard[39] maintains that teaching the meaning of democracy includes a development of the meaning of family life and its implications for building character and personality. The school can direct attitudes toward reestablishing pride in maintaining a superior home he says if not opposed by social attitudes outside of school. This further evidences the vicious circle of maladjustment and makes it mandatory that the school assume its solemn

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36. Francis J. Brown, Educational Sociology, p. 541.

37. American Association of School Administrators, Morale for a Free World, Twenty-second Yearbook, 1944, p. 99.

38. Brown, op. cit., p. 206.

39. Paul J. Leonard, Developing the Secondary School Curriculum, p. 544.
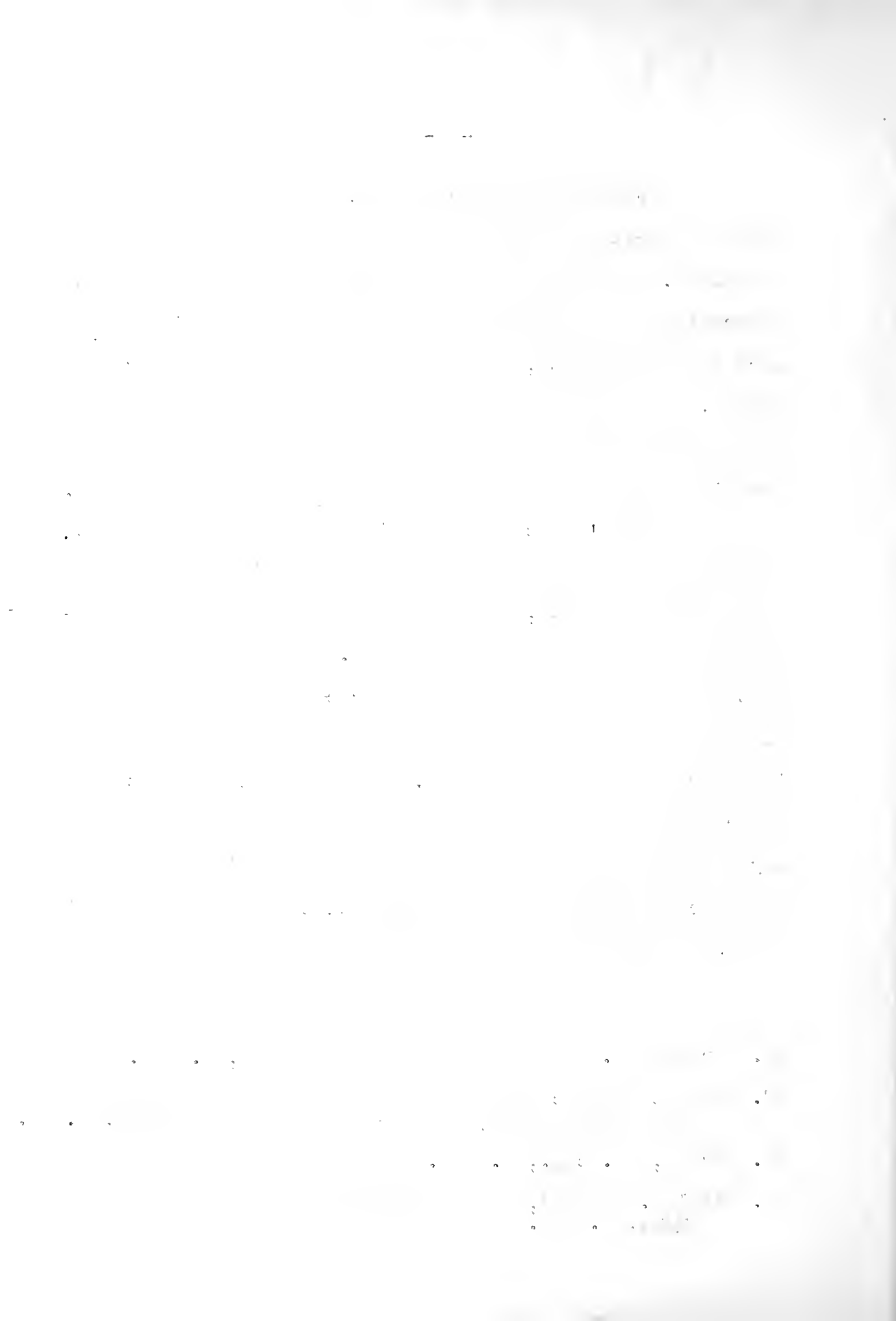
obligation in providing a program of prevention.

These facts, general and specific, demonstrate conclusively that there is need for an explicit plan of procedure that will provide for these shortcomings. All rays converge on the greatest shortcoming, teaching the meaning of democracy.

Summary. It has been indicated that this problem contains three sub-problems bearing on the factors of morale and the effectiveness of procedures. The definitions of the concept "morale" and of other terms implicated in the problem have been clarified. The problem has been delimited to the means and the feasibility of building morale through education. It has been assumed that in seeking to build morale, provision for educational inadequacies will be made.

A historical precis of the concept "morale" has revealed its symbolic connotation as voluntary behavior resulting from feeling for a common purpose.

Totalitarian and democratic educational procedures for building morale, each for its own special purpose, have been contrasted.

Both general and specific facts for determining the need for this study have been cited. That the school can make provision for these shortcomings through a program of directive force has been inferred.

The democratic process as the essence of morale
building becomes a means to an end.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In presenting a kalesidoscopic view of discoveries pertinent to this study, literature gives education a broader vision of a field that is white to harvest. These discoveries invest education with directive force and suggest the feasibility of providing a program of improvement focused on morale.

REQUIREMENTS OF MORALE

Motivation. Since morale is a characteristic of human behavior, and its seat is the human will, the problem of morale is the problem of motivation according to the American Association of School Administrators.[1] Ross[2] assigns to motivation an important place in human affairs. He refers to the familiar proverb, "You can lead a horse to water, but you can't make him drink," and cites attention to the accepted causative factor in the situation - the horse does not drink because he does not want to drink. In clarifying the meaning of motivation, Ross suggests that motives be grouped into two major classes - internal or organic, and external or environmental. In recent years, he relates, the term "drive," or "urge" has been used for internal or organic,

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1. American Association of School Administrators, Morale for a Free World, Twenty-second Yearbook, 1944, p. 28.

2. C. C. Ross, Measurement in Today's Schools, pp. 315-316.

and "goal," or "incentive," has been used for external or
environment. He gives as examples of drives - hunger, thirst,
sex, interests, attitudes, wants, desires, and temporary men-
tal sets. Incentives, he explains, may be negative, as are
pain and punishment, or positive, as are rewards in any num-
ber of forms. In a final analysis, however, he concludes
that although motivation may in some instances be externally
initiated, it always functions internally.

Underlying conditions of a moral spirit. That the
technic of morale depends upon controlling conditions which
affect human motivation is the expressed conviction of the
American Association of School Administrators.[3] The Association
groups the underlying conditions of a moral spirit into three
categories consisting of physical, mental, and ideational factors.

The play of biochemical forces governed and impelled
by physical needs and appetites is the summation of the physi-
cal factors. There is a balance of physical conditions, of
satisfactions and privations, which conduces to what is called
"fitness," signifying the maximum of alertness, responsiveness,
and vital energy of which individuals are capable. Health,
nutrition, protection from excessive heat and cold, and all
of the physical factors enhancing satisfaction and cheerfulness

3. American Association of School Administrators, Morale
for a Free World, Twenty-second Yearbook, 1944, pp. 29-31.

enable individuals or groups to respond more fully to any demand which may be made upon them. Physical conditions that are too severe are depressing while those that are too easy are relaxing.

Mental life is governed by psychological propensities or drives and determined by the forces which unite individuals in society. Effective stimuli to primary impulses together with formation of habits which provide for routine performances and release effort for action requiring conscious regulation and choice are the constituents of psychological conditions of high morale. Especially important are the social dispositions which combine to create the prestige of leadership, the potency of symbols, and, above all, esprit de corps.

Individual and social life is integrated through adherence to a common cause - to ideas, goals, or purposes. This common cause is the ideational factor. An ideal goal serves to unify the activities of an individual keeping him steadily on the same course of action and to bind members of a group together, subordinating diverse and conflicting interests to the common cause.

There is no sharp line of demarcation between these levels. Any act may consist of all three. Nevertheless, they provide a convenient classification of the factors in human behavior which provide the underlying conditions of
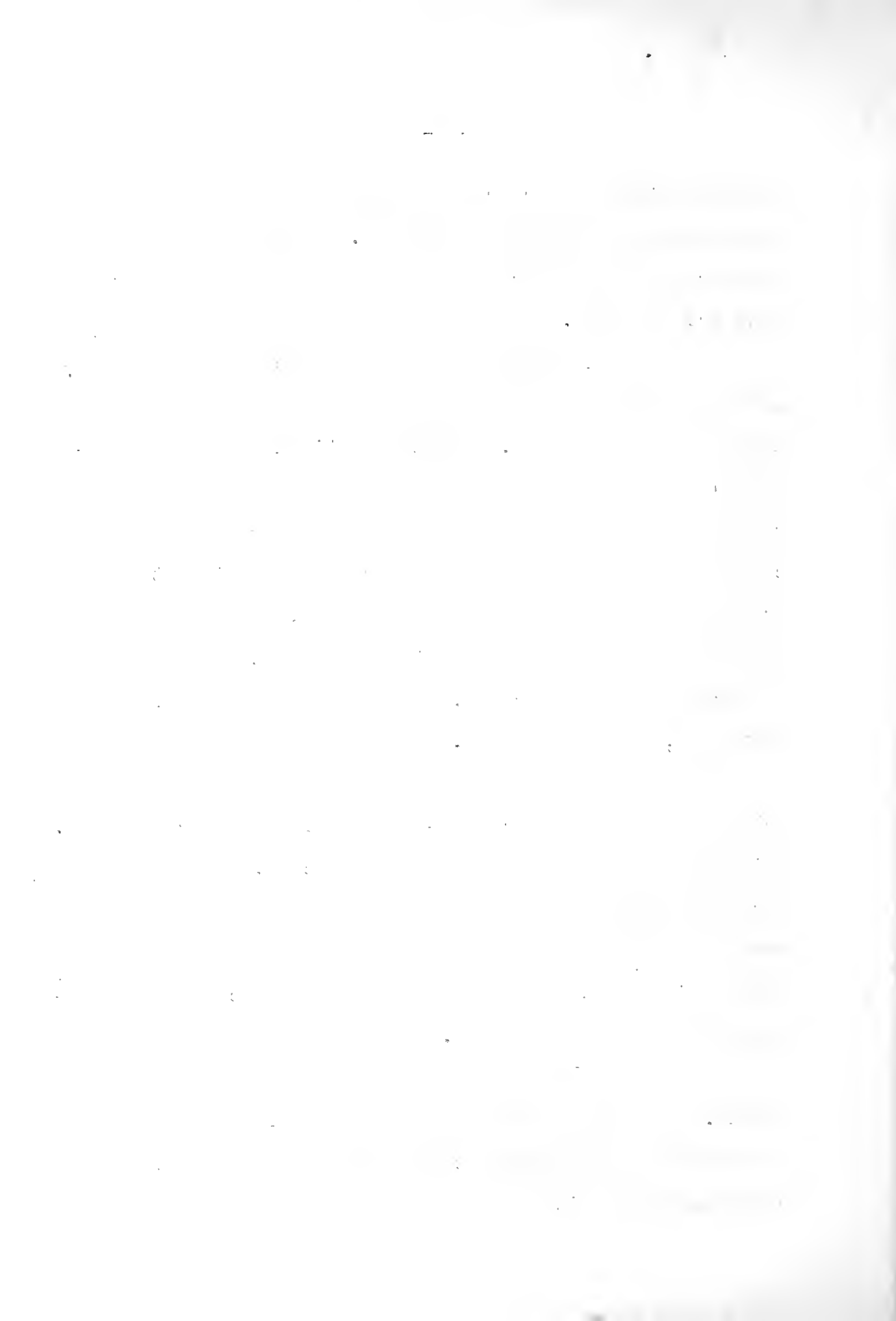
that powerful motivation which constitutes morale. Morale is
related to and dependent upon body, mind, and spirit. Mind
and spirit may triumph over the flesh but there must be an
adequate physical envelope supplied with food, shelter,
clothing, as well as with conditions of health, including
rest and recreation. Human needs require companionship,
regard of others, acceptance by the group. The degree to
which the economic and social system enables an individual
to attain these creature satisfactions is a concern of morale.
But this is not enough; having a soul, man demands spiritual
satisfactions. It is part of the task of leadership and
institutions to provide him with aspirations. From these
he learns to measure his powers and to frame his ideas; from
seeking and from finding he develops his sense of the worth
of life.

The Educational Policies Commission[4] in substantial
agreement with the American Association of School Administrators
infers that good morale is composed of at least five ingredi-
ents - health, economic security, psychological security,
confidence in associates, and loyalty to a common purpose.

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4. Educational Policies Commission, Education and the Morale
   of a Free People, (November, 1941), pp. 7-21.

Although some individuals rise above the handicap
of ill health, it is maintained that, as a general principle,
individual morale and the morale of the group reflect the
physical well-being of the members of the group. Rarely will
an individual who is suffering from chronic infection, mal-
nutrition, or fatigue possess a satisfactory degree of morale.
On the other hand, good health assists individuals in rising
above annoyances and above supreme difficulties with confi-
dence and courage.

Economic insecurity gravely endangers morale it is
affirmed. And the stand that the nation is capable of pro-
ducing goods and services sufficient for comfortable and even
abundant living for all without a control that destroys per-
sonal initiative and spirit of adventure into new economic
enterprise is firmly supported.

Psychological security is equally as important it
is inferred. In addition to health and economic measures, a
number of other means may be employed in encouraging psycho-
logical security. Included in these measures are developing
feelings of self-confidence, telling people the truth; giving
sustained attention to the discovery of measures to prevent
recurrence of conditions which led to the present war; de-
veloping a sense of spiritual values which transcend selfish
personal interests; and providing appropriate amounts of
diversion and recreation.

Confidence in one's associates and in one's leaders is an imperative need. An individual must feel that his associates share his views as to the importance of the common cause. He must feel, too, that no one will take advantage of his devotion to the common ideal and gain unfairly from the sacrifices that he is making. Efficient leadership is conducive to morale while unfairness or dishonesty is detrimental.

Finally, morale is dependent upon the personal conviction that the goal for which the individual is striving is sufficiently worthy of any sacrifice and suffering that may be required. Loyalty is essential.

Between these two divisions of elements, the three factors and the five ingredients, there is no indication of conflict. Although not designated as a particular factor in the three categories of the American Association of School Administrators, the influence of economic security is recognized. It is specified that there is a blend of both heridity and environment in all of these factors and that morale is concerned with the degree to which the economic and social systems provide the means of attaining creature satisfactions. Then although no special place is accorded the element, confidence in associates, its implication is observable through both the psychological and ideational factors. Moreover, in the statement of conditions necessary to

implement high morale, specifically named among other things
are economic security, recognition of personal worth for pro-
moting friendly relations and confidence, and the universal
need to belong to one's society for enhancing one's standing
in it. Thus the two classifications are in significant agree-
ment, and in either classification - the three factors: phys-
ical, psychological, and ideational as given by the American
Association of School Administrators or the five ingredients:
health, economic security, psychological security, confidence
in associates, and loyalty to a common purpose as given by
the Educational Policies Commission - there is an integration
of all of the separate elements into an entity. No analysis
of the separate parts can account for the total. The result-
ing compound possesses potentialities not found in the ele-
ments alone. Considering each element _per_ _se_ does not result
in a complete understanding. Like the cup of the Digger
Indians,[5] morale is somehow all of a piece.

Contribution of education to elements of morale.
Through numerous contacts with youth, parents, and other
citizens, both directly and indirectly, the school is afford-

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5. Ruth Benedict, Patterns of Culture, pp. 19-20. The Digger
   Indians compared their culture to a cup from which they
   had drunk their lives. Their original standards and
   beliefs were a permeation. It was not a matter of adding
   something here, taking off something there. The modeling
   had been fundamental. "It was somehow all of a piece."

ed the opportunity of contributing to each of the ingredients of morale the Educational Policies Commission maintains.[6]

An adequately supported health program well directed and zealously carried on could be tremendously instrumental in the advancement of health and morale. There are schools and communities that provide excellent examples of accomplishment. These inspiring experiences should be capitalized upon by schools with the health, safety, and physical education program given an important place. Any deficiencies should be faced and provision made for remedial treatment. Deficiencies of the school health services are detrimental in both their immediate and future effects upon national morale. These efforts of the school should extend to public educational services for adults with provision for prevention and healing services for the entire population by public health measures if necessary.

Education can make a contribution to economic security in several ways. Federal and state action providing at least a minimum of educational opportunities which would have the effect of lessening inequalities of economic opportunity would be a step toward national morale. Education can

6. Educational Policies Commission, Education and the Morale of a Free People, (November, 1941), pp. 7-26.

contribute directly and immediately, however. First, youth
and adults can be given a more accurate knowledge of the
various conditions under which men live and work thereby
fostering a desire to improve these conditions. But the con-
tribution of education to this important element of morale
may extend beyond cultivating attitudes. An educational
program of sufficient quality and quantity widely distributed
could have a direct influence upon the efficient operation of
the economic system. Education can improve economic efficien-
cy by encouraging attitudes which regard all work for a social-
ly useful purpose as the proper, natural, and honorable occu-
pation of every able-bodied person. Then by preparing every
young person for useful work and to function as an economic
citizen, education can help to improve economic efficiency.
Information both adequate and authentic on difficult economic
questions is a necessary addition. This together with per-
spective of the slow evolution of justice and fair play in
human affairs, a patience and prudence in planning new ad-
vances, and a resistance to cure-all economic propaganda is
most valuable in fortifying youth for good citizenship.

The school is afforded numerous and varied oppor-
tunities for promoting mental security. Adjusting the school
work to individual interests and feelings cultivates feelings
of self-confidence and courage. Achievement which is worth-
while to the individual and brings praise from his fellows
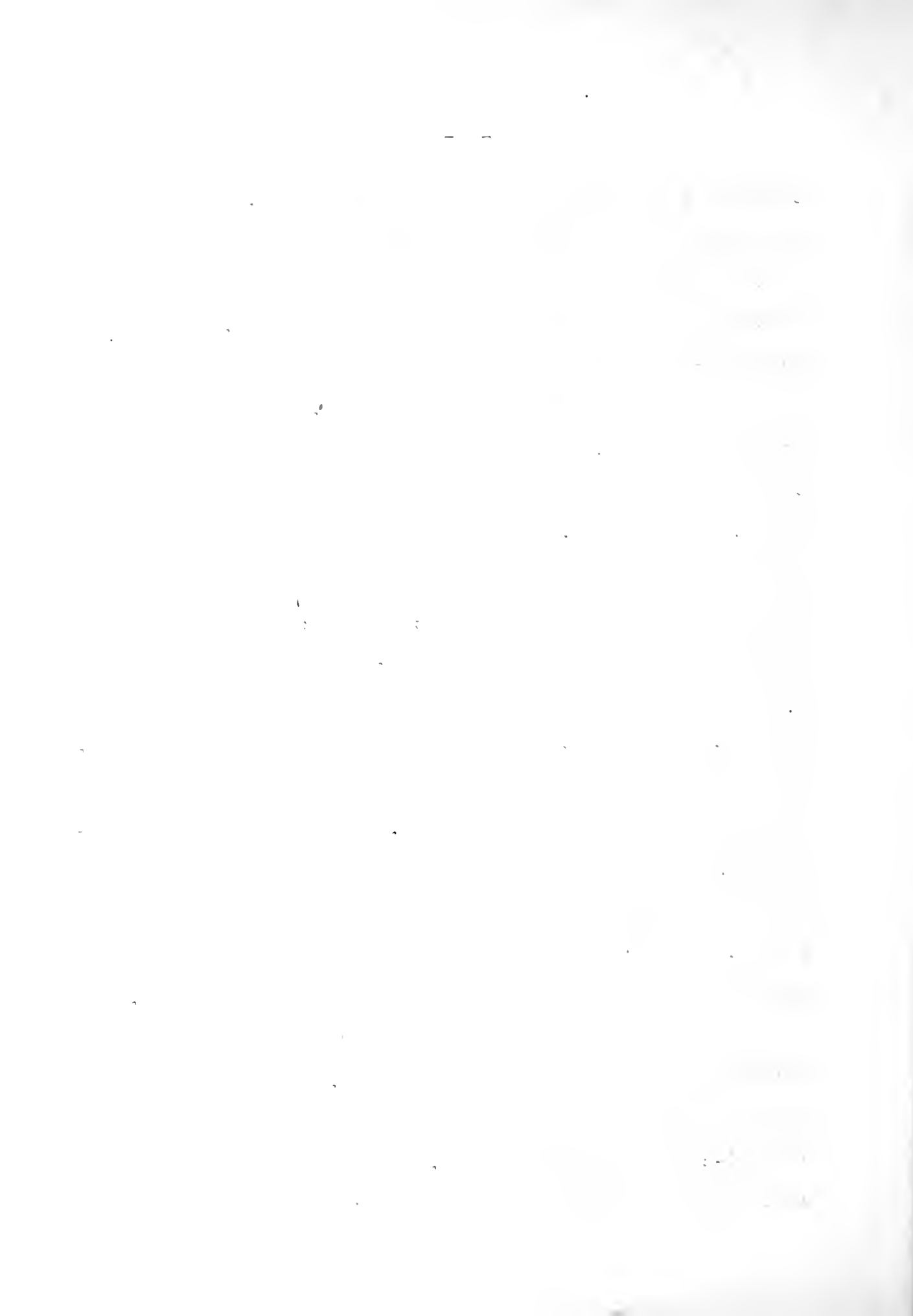
and genuine participation in an undertaking serve to stimu-
late individual morale. On the other hand, lack of adjust-
ment to school work creates attitudes of fear of failure,
of shame and timidity, of resentment. These feelings and a
suspicion that one's efforts are belittled or ignored are
detrimental. Improvement of health, vocational skills, or
any other aspect of the competence of the individual develops
the self-respect so necessary to mental security. If the
school is to teach morale to the nation, it must be a living
example. It must prove to children and youth that it deals
fairly with its membership, recognizes achievement, appre-
ciates excellence of performance, and honors contributions
to the general welfare of the school and community. Promot-
ing respect for the truth through precept and example and
exploring ways and means of achieving a more peaceful world
order are privileges of education. Recognition of individual
worth and dignity is the keynote of all good educational
practice, a principle of all great religions, a basic assump-
tion of democratic theory, and the point at which the American
way of life differs most sharply from the totalitarian. Ef-
forts in teaching children and youth to understand and revere
the great ethical principles common to all of our religions,
to avoid bigotry on religious issues, and to enjoy and defend
the privilege of religious freedom should be therefore re-
doubled. Recreation plays an important part in promoting

mental security. Thus the school should encourage music, plays, games for improving the morale of both the young people and the adult members of the community. It then follows that education can contribute to each of the five qualities of psychological security - to self-confidence, to facing realities, to thoughts for the future, to allegiance to moral values, to provision for diversion.

Then education can promote understanding and respect and develop confidence in worthy leadership thereby encouraging a fourth element of morale, confidence in others. First, the school can provide opportunities for young people and adults to cooperate in socially worthwhile efforts, thereby lessening the extremes of partisanship, the economic antagonisms, the regional and racial conflicts, and the religious differences. Direct instruction concerning the contributions of various groups to the common welfare of the nation has its place also. In developing confidence in worthy leadership, instruction should place emphasis upon the responsibility of public officials to the people as a whole and the responsibility of the people themselves in their choice of public officials. Finally, education can emphasize the duty of the citizen in keeping all criticism of public policy honest, intelligent, constructive, and free from extreme partisanship.

Education is the basis of intelligent loyalties to a common purpose. Group loyalty and group enthusiasm should accompany the habit of critical thinking. This loyalty requires systematic training in the practice of democratic procedures and a clear understanding of the nature of the democracy which America defends. The school has an opportunity for expressing this loyalty through pageantry, ritual, music. Honest teaching by teachers who themselves think deeply and care sincerely about democratic values is of supreme importance.

Thus education can make contributions to each of the five overlapping elements of morale - Health, Economic Security, Psychological security, Confidence in associates, and Loyalty to a common purpose. The Educational Policies Commission concludes that the school can with fairness be held responsible (1) for doing its particular part of the job understandingly and thoroughly, and (2) for stimulating and coordinating the efforts of other educational forces as the organized educational agency of society.

The American Association of School Administrators[7] names specific practices which the school can employ in contributing to each of the three foundations upon which democratic

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7. American Association of School Administrators, Morale for a Free World, Twenty-second Yearbook, 1944, pp. 171-201.

morale is based. These practices like the elements of morale themselves constantly supplement and interact upon each other.

Recognizing and striving to meet for each child his human needs for physical health and well-being, the school is responsible in at least six ways - providing a healthful environment, maintaining a health guidance program, giving emergency health conditions immediate care, teaching accurate health information, establishing sound health habits and attitudes, modifying the school program to meet the exceptional child's requirements. The school is responsible for organizing a program that prevents strains, provides some work for work's sake, and provides recreation that recreates.

Recognizing and striving to meet for each child his psychological needs for social status and the sense of security and _esprit_ _de_ _corps_ that comes through being a needed and valuable member of his society, the school will promote growth through a program of sharing. Every individual should feel himself a necessary, appreciated, and significant member filling his role with pride. Every individual should accept his share of responsibility for his own and the common good, should learn that no rights come to anyone without accompaning responsibilities, should share the common heritage of the fortunate citizens of the best of democracies, and should learn to evaluate himself in terms of the rights of others. For high group morale in a school all the people, children
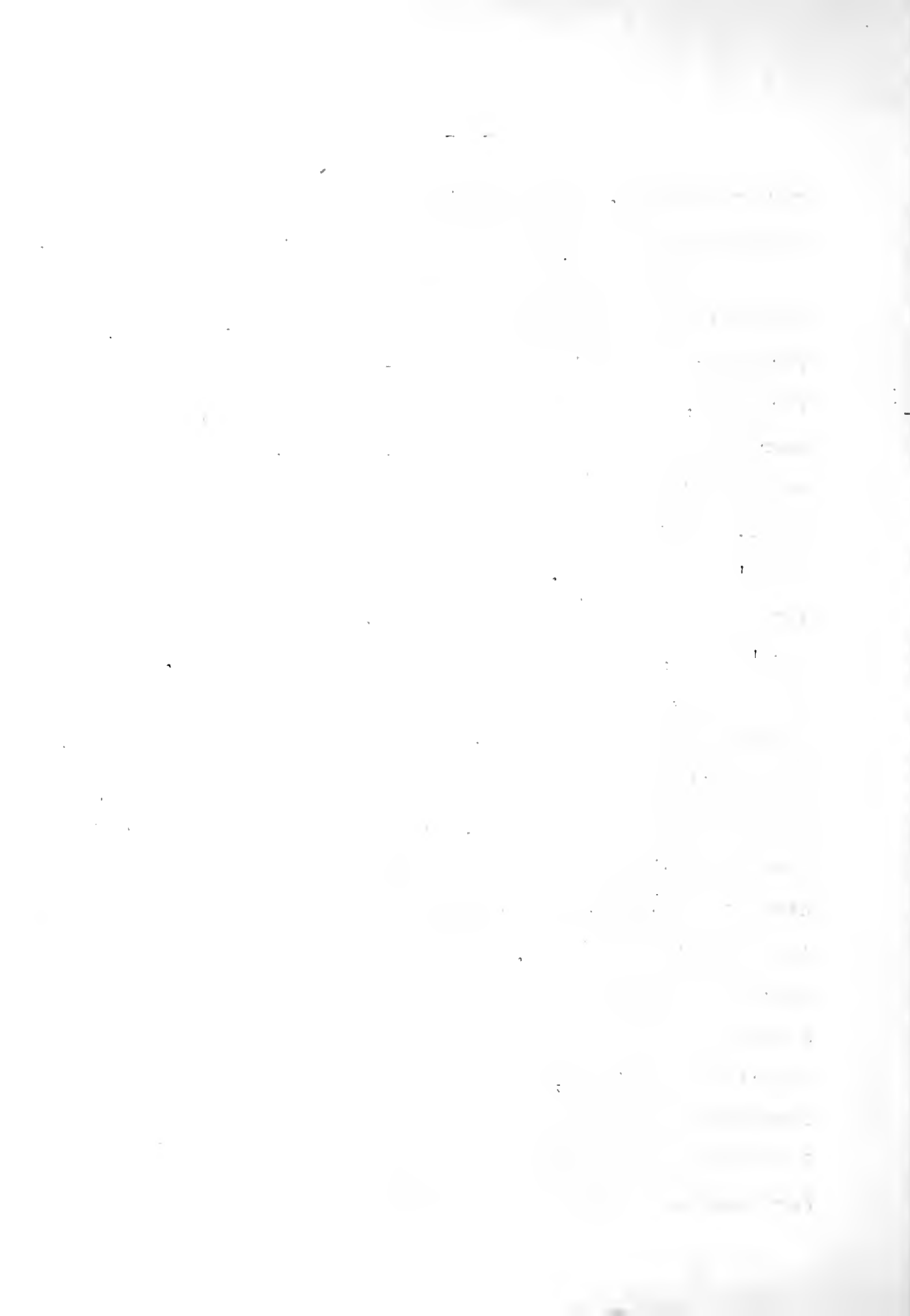
and adults, in the school (1) must have a clear understanding of what they are trying to do through their school organization - their goals; (2) must be making observable progress toward those individual and group objectives; (3) must have a sense of unification within the school organization; (4) must have a self-respecting status as members of the school organization; and (5) must have the stimulus of democratic leadership.

In recognizing and striving to meet for each child his need for a unifying element in life that will integrate his activities toward a common cause that he can share with others, the school will give living experience in the ways of democracy and conscious attention to an intellectual understanding and an emotional attachment to the ideals of democracy. The school should redouble its efforts in producing citizens who understand and earnestly desire for themselves and for all other people the opportunity to live lives guided by truth, freedom, fellow feeling, human dignity, and personal responsibility. Pageantry and drama are of inestimable value in teaching young people these ideals of democracy.

New goals of education as perceived by the American Association of School Administrators - A generation that will be freer from suspicion, hatred, and greed than those who have gone before; that will know how to work cooperatively
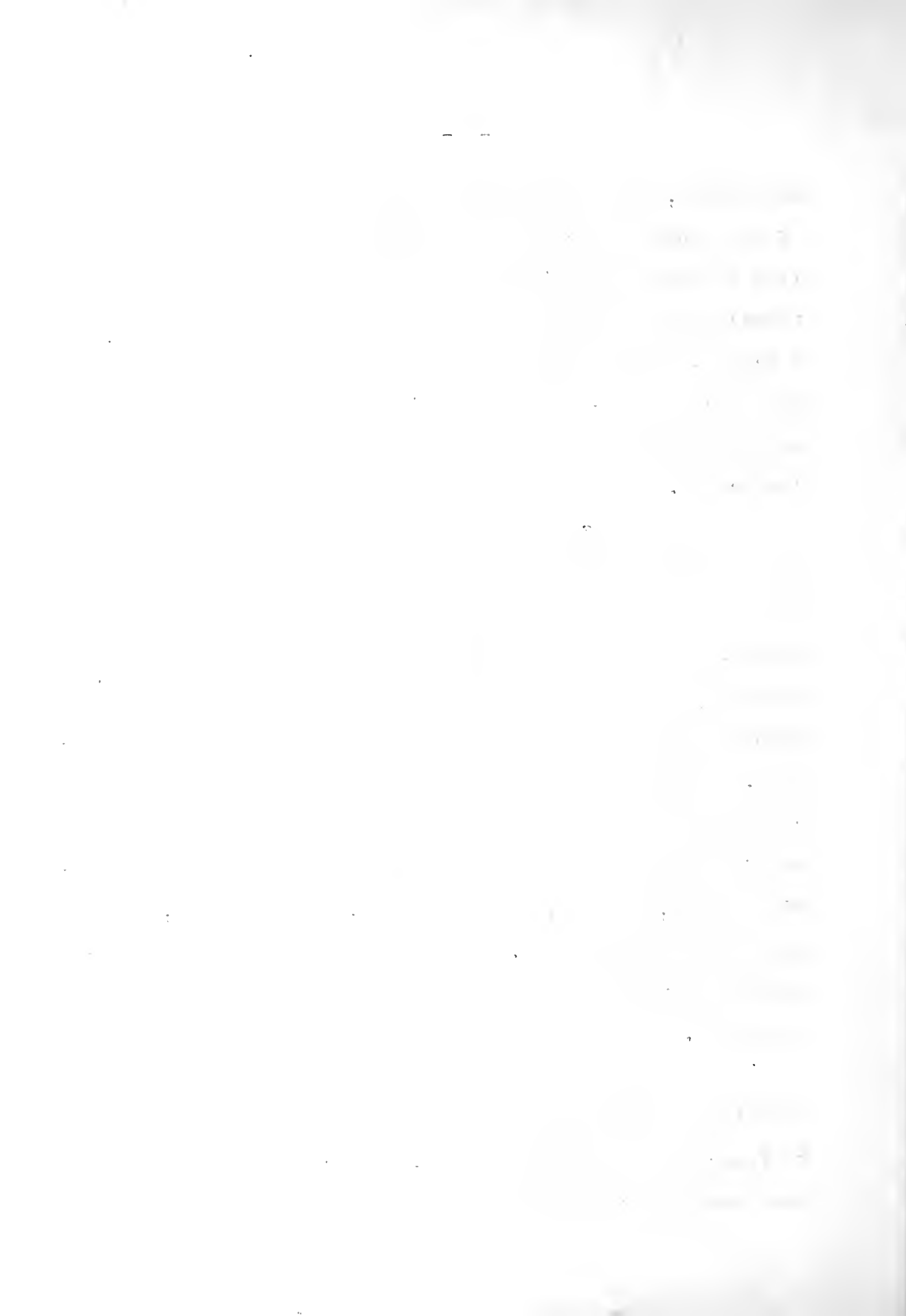
on big issues because they have practiced on smaller ones;
that will think of the world as the new air maps show it,
with no isolating boundaries, no barriers to trade, commu-
nication, and friendship; that believes deeply in the demo-
cratic process but can work with other groups having differ-
ent views; that will have the racial questions and problems
of creed, labor, and minority groups thought through and on
the way to solution; that believes in orderly processes of
cooperation rather than the way of ruthless competition[8] -
merge into the unity: Living harmoniously with one's self
and with one's fellow humans.

With such goals the effort to build morale in the
schools of all America is a challenge to the best minds in
the profession, the Association declares.[9]

Then it follows that it is within the scope of
education to contribute to each of the factors of morale
and that the school can with fairness be held responsible
both for doing its particular part of the job well and for
stimulating and coordinating the efforts of other education-
al forces. With goals that blend into a whole - living

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8. American Association of School Administrators, Morale
    for a Free World, Twenty-second Yearbook, 1944,
    pp. 200-201.

9. Ibid., p. 201.

harmoniously with one's self and with one's fellow humans -
progressively-minded educators are stimulated to unite in a
common cause, building morale in the schools of all America.

MORALE'S RELATIONSHIP TO DEMOCRACY

Involvements. That the American Association of
School Administrators[10] concedes the democratic process to be
the essence of morale building is stated in the preceding
chapter. However, it is so directive as to be essential to
this consideration. The inference of the American Association
of School Administrators[11] that in building morale the schools
have the double task of helping their pupils to know and to
love the ideals of democracy and of helping those pupils to
learn habits of thinking and acting that will advance those
goals integrates the procedures. As noted previously Leonard[12]
evaluates these procedures in the assertion that the first and
greatest goal of secondary education, teaching the meaning of
democracy, is one of the greatest present shortcomings. Build-
ing a program to teach the meaning of democracy so that idealism,
enthusiasm, and loyalties of youth are caught and tied to the

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10. Ibid., p. 190.

11. Ibid., p. 190.

12. Paul J. Leonard, Developing the Secondary School Curric-
    ulum, p. 544.

competence necessary to make the principles of democracy
operative is his initial proposal in a design of curricular
revision.

Patterns of present practices. The Educational
Policies Commission observed ninety American secondary schools
for evidences of the democratic spirit in educational prac-
tices. Six ideas of democratic education were found. These
six patterns of school practices were summarized as follows:

1. The "master-mind" school with democratic pur-
poses which it attempted to carry out through autocratic
procedures.

2. The "busy-work" school, negligent of purposes
but humming with its multitude of activities.

3. The "freedom-by-formula" school with its
emphasis on procedures to be followed in group planning.

4. The "do-as-you-please" school with its aver-
sion to uniformity and prescription.

5. The "get-jobs-done" school with attention
centered on efficient achievement of socially useful work.

6. The "liberty-within-limits" school with dele-
gation of authorities to administration, teachers, and stu-
dents.

Two conclusions were reached: First, everybody
concerned in each case wanted sincerely to make democracy

work and believed that education was a powerful instrument
for that purpose. Second, in every school three questions
had to be answered, and the principal differences between
the schools are found in the answers to these questions:

1. What is to be done? This is the problem of
purpose.

2. How is it to be done? This is the problem of
procedure.

3. Who is to do it? This is the problem of
personnel.

The three problems - purpose, procedure, personnel -
must be mastered before much progress on the road to democratic
efficiency can be made.[13]

Democratic method. By drawing lines of distinction
between democracy and autocracy, the Educational Policies
Commission[14] clarifies democratic method. In a democracy the
primary purpose of all action is the welfare of each indi-
vidual while in an autocracy, whether it be directed by the
administrator of a school or the head of a nation, individ-
ual welfare must be made secondary if the autocracy is to

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13. Educational Policies Commission, Learning the Ways of
        Democracy, 1940, pp. 1-16.

14. Ibid., p. 18.

exist. The presence of a dictator or something he represents
is more important than the combined values of the members of
the group. But efficient group action is possible only when
the members of the group can find their own welfare represent-
ed in the group's purposes. In an autocracy the welfare of
individual members of a group is always subordinated to some-
thing which is held to have greater worth than the individuals
in the group.

Otto points out that although some administrators have
always used democratic methods in dealing with other persons,
general recognition of the absolute necessity for democratic
practices in school administration did not prevail until recent
years.[15] Recognition of the fact that schools in a democratic
culture must educate for democracy if the culture is to sur-
vive, that competence in democratic behavior can be acquired
best through participation and practice, and that teachers to
be skillful in education for democracy must have opportunity
to experience democracy in those things which are of vital
concern to them, has given new significance to the place of
democratic procedures in school administration he points out.[16]

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15. Henry J. Otto, Elementary School Organization and Ad-
     ministration, p. 86.

16. Ibid., p. 87.

Otto[17] says further that although our modern so-
cietal and thought world has created significant new develop-
ments which in their turn have made demands on the school and
although rapid changes in our mode of life have forced a re-
sponse from the school, an even greater impact upon educational
practices has been produced by the newer psychology. There
emerged the demand for participation on the part of the pupil;
he has not only to learn about society but was to do so by
active participation in realistic enterprises. Knowledge
was no longer to be a thing apart from conduct; it was to
become an affair of conduct itself; it was to be functional.
To regard knowledge as a function of behavior gave genuine
meaning to the place of "activities" in education; it was an
earnest attempt to discover the more exact nature of know-
ledge as an affair of conduct. There thus evolved a new
notion of the relation of character to conduct; if there was
no real separation of knowledge from behavior itself, then
mere information about desirable conduct could not necessar-
ily produce such conduct. Teaching method became revealed
in a new light; it was no longer a technique for training the
faculties of the mind but rather a way of guiding children's

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17. Ibid., pp. 66-68.
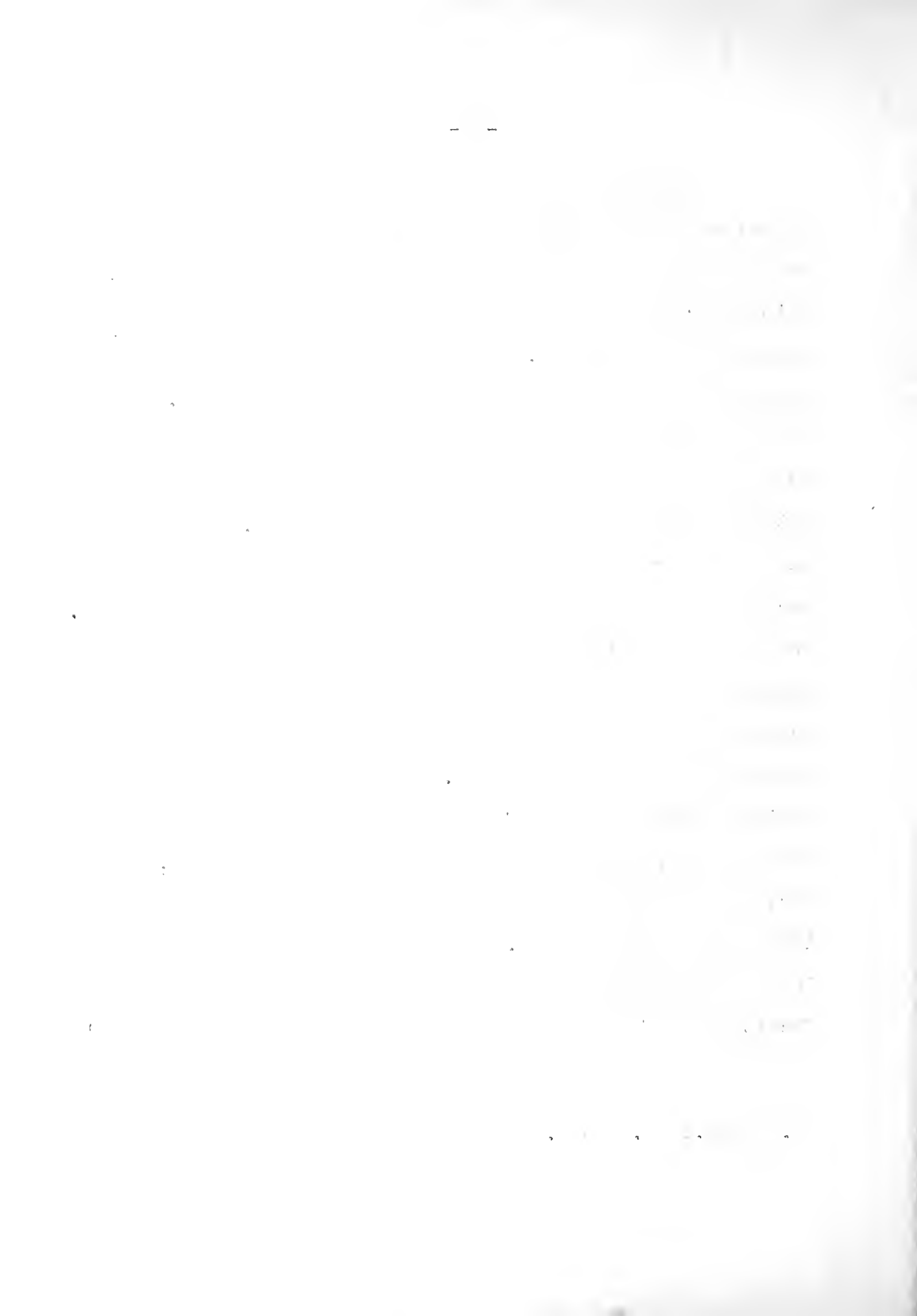
experiences toward desirable ends. These desirable ends included not only adjustment to present society but also a deliberate effort to improve society. Only a new type of citizen, one who had acquired habits and skills for critical thinking and who had experimental attitude, could function satisfactorily under such challenges.

In the light of the clarification of democracy as given by the Educational Policies Commission[18] in the contrast of democracy and autocracy, and as pointed out in subsequent paragraphs, an autocratic school may be subjected to mental starvation and spiritual violence in order to satisfy the selfish aggrandizement of dictatorship. Whenever dictatorship in any form takes precedence of the welfare of individuals in a group, democracy in that group becomes a sham and a delusion.

The Educational Policies Commission makes emphatic assertions as to the relation of procedures to purposes. Procedures must be consistent with the purposes they are intended to serve. For instance, democratic purposes are not achieved by dictatorial methods nor are autocratic aims furthered by democratic means. Methods of democratic planning are not learned in situations where the outcomes are arbi-

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18. Educational Policies Commission, Learning the Ways of Democracy, 1940, p. 19.

trarily determined in advance. Nor can other useful skills
of democratic action be learned in groups whose purposes
rest upon arbitrary external authority. The ways of democracy
must be learned the Commission continues, and it must be kept
in mind that the school is primarily a place for learning
rather than for demonstrating finished performance. The
ability of a child to take part in democratic processes is
conditioned by his maturity and his previous experiences.
The particular skills needed in a democratic society must be
learned as are other skills - from the rudiments upward,
through years of guided experience. The reliability of the
activities depends upon their character. If people are active
in deciding where they want to go or in using the most effi-
cient methods of getting there, their activity is evidence of
democracy the Commission concludes.[19]

The American Association of School Administrators
has found numerous attempts to live the way of democracy in
school. For illustration, two programs are given, one at the
elementary level and one at the secondary level, in which
pupils had a part in planning and executing school activities.

In the elementary school illustration, the first
step toward learning democracy was building an organization.

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19. Educational Policies Commission, Learning the Ways of
    Democracy, 1940, pp. 26-30.

The officers of the organization were selected by the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades (those old enough to vote) exactly as their parents voted. The next step was making the organization function. This was chiefly through committees which grew from seven to twenty-five with every possible kind of work about the school, involving all decisions in which it was possible for children and teachers to share, entrusted to them. The third phase was the formation of a Representative Assembly. A discussion period was set aside on the day following the Assembly, at which the representatives reported the proceedings of the day before. The discussion centered on issues that were to be decided at the next meeting and thereby gave the entire school a voice in the deliberations. This special organization had at the time of the report lived and grown through several changes of adult leadership. The comment is added that a student-government association cannot succeed unless it is the business of every individual in the school.

In the secondary school illustrations, two examples of student sharing are given. The first is pupil-parent-teacher discussion of mutual problems. Committees of parents, pupils, and teachers met and summarized the conflicts. The summary was given the thoughtful study of a thousand parents gathered in small groups at Open House. Then it received the consideration of 1275 pupils under their counselors. Thus
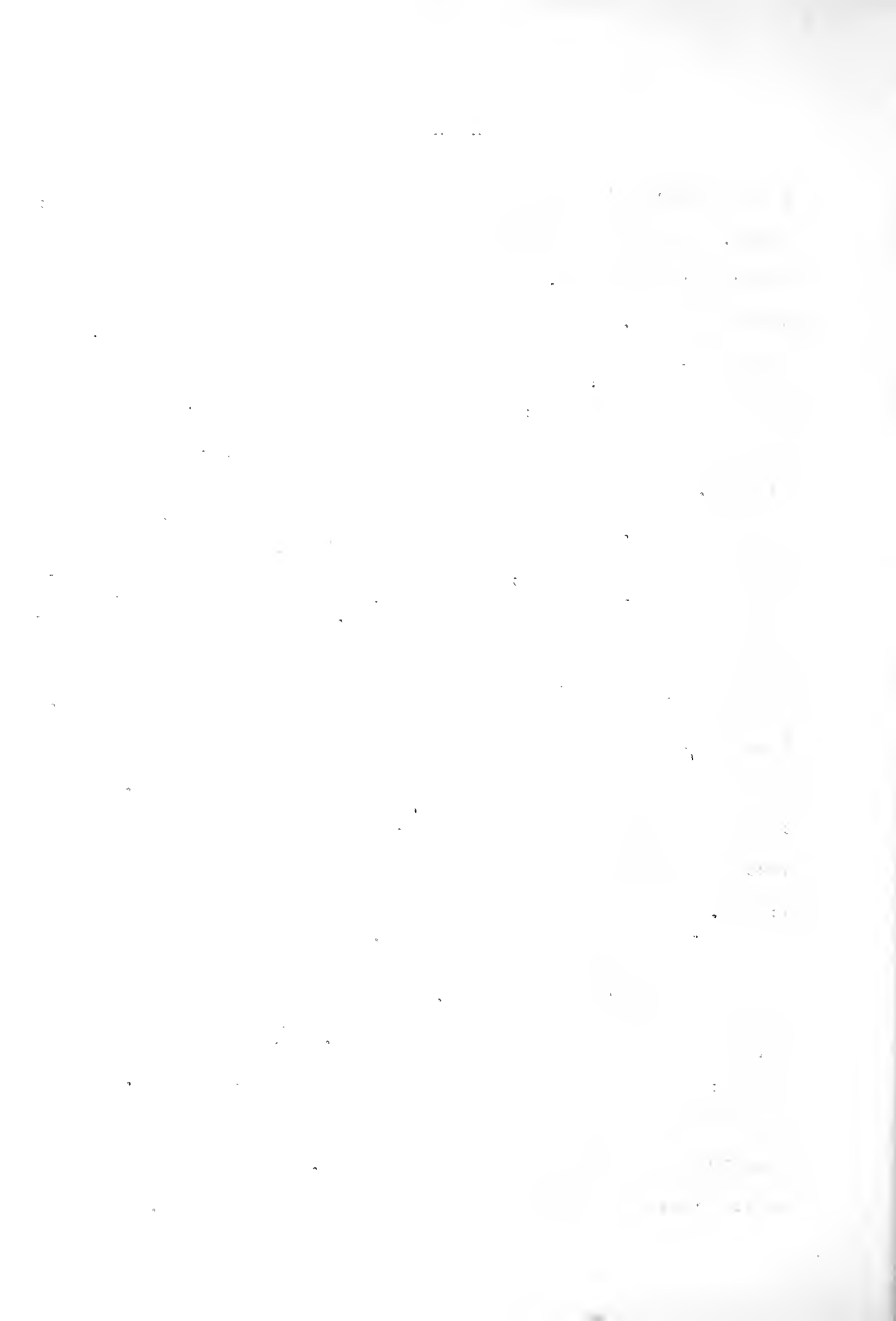
the printed form emerged as the interaction of many minds.
The second example describes a project of cooperative think-
ing on postwar citizenship. Committees of pupils, teachers,
and principals studied together for some time. These com-
mittees recommended and carried out a plan for understanding
postwar citizenship and consequent raising of student morale.
Lecture-discussion assemblies were followed by study and dis-
cussion in English and social studies classes. The local
Co-operative Club, a group of business men, offered a prize
for the best piece of writing done on the topic. The teachers
suggested that instead of the prize the club entertain at
dinner five students from each classroom who would do the
best piece of writing. At this dinner one paper from each
class, chosen for variety rather than excellence, was read
by its author. All the others were printed in the local news-
paper. Although the degree of morale and the level of under-
standing developed by this project could not be accurately
measured, at least it could be said that it revealed evidences
of much value the Association declares.

There is no one best type of student participation
the Association continues; the activities should recognize the
need of the students and the community and should spring from
examination of purposes, not from imitation. They should go
as far as the students and faculty are able to go in view of
previous experience and skill in democratic procedures.
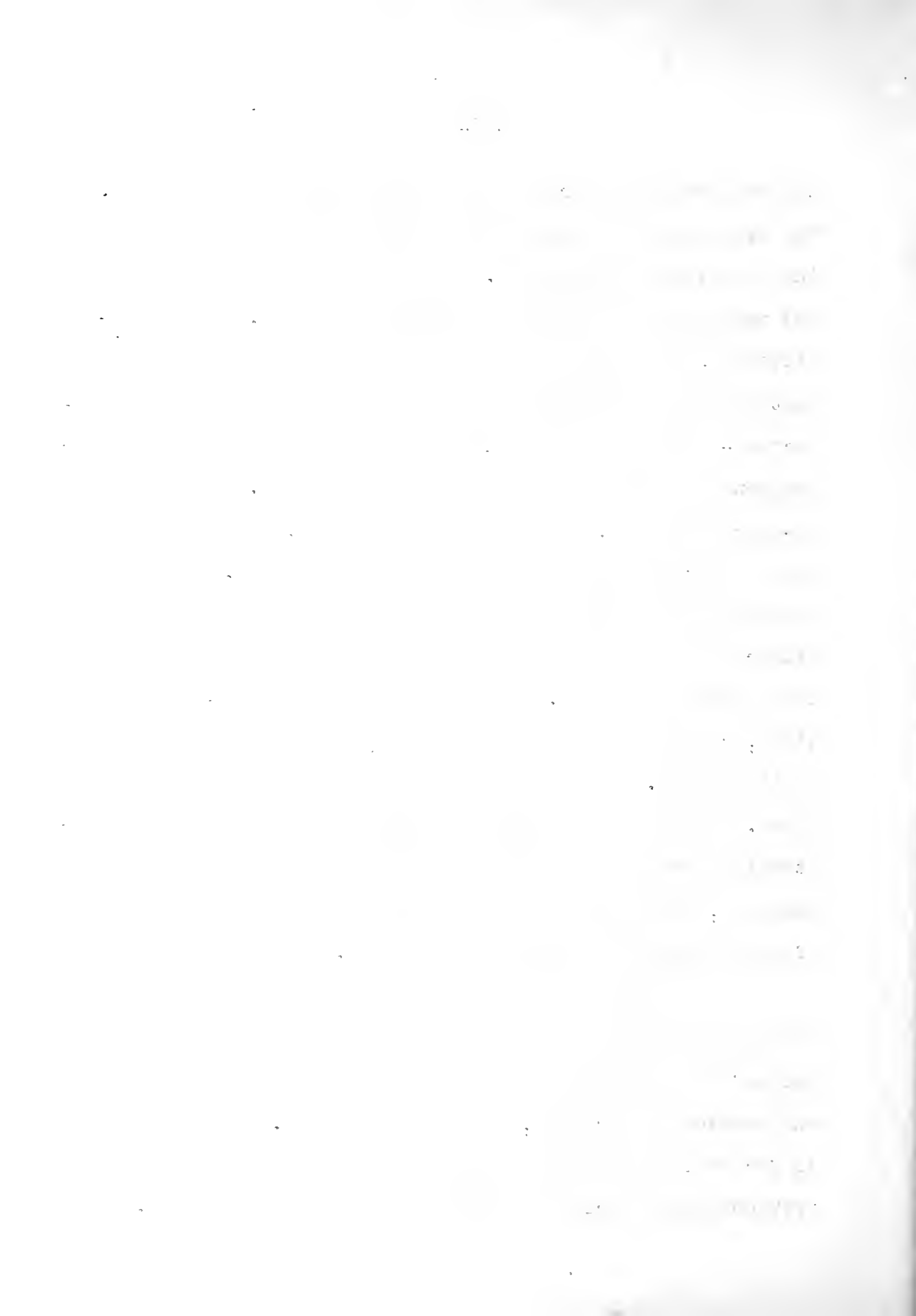
The Association found numerous examples of student participation, yet it was revealed that the functioning of student government in high schools was of poor quality. Of the 1801 schools reporting, all except 252 reported some form of student government. However, not many of the functions concerned government. Such considerations as planning, managing elections, and improving student-faculty relationships were low. Monitor duty was often mentioned. It is noted that much monitor service could best be dispensed with as students do not learn self-control while being watched. Although it is important that students have significant and useful things to do, the question as to why and how they do them is more important. Significant tasks are part of a co-operative enterprise contributing toward making the school a better place in which to live and work. The report showed that in 40 per cent of the schools that reported, the students did nothing but vote. In 86 per cent of these schools everything that the councils did was subject to the veto of the principal. The report then offers these suggestions for improving student governments:

1. A more democratic choice of student officers with fewer ineligibility rules

2. Government a daily working affair with the classroom as the unit

3. More effort to teach government and to make

students government conscious through the student government
method

    4. Improvement in the tasks and responsibilities
given to students

    5. Careful thinking out of areas in which students
can operate without being subject to veto

   6. Selection of teacher sponsors sensitive to
youth's needs

    7. Time for the sponsor to be an effective guide

    8. A place of meeting that carries dignity and a
sense of importance to the school.[20]

    Hughes[21] has found some of the most significant
civic activities to be those that are more or less well-
known - student council, ushering at plays and assemblies,
radio programs, newspapers, and other publications. The
degree to which these function is variable. Some less well-
known ones are school-community activities, dispensary clubs,
tutoring aid, program for student registration and voting.
Quoting from Harry C. McKown, he gives as three essentials
of civic education - ideals, pertinent knowledge, and func-

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20. American Association of School Administrators, Morale for
    a Free World, Twenty-second Yearbook, 1944, pp. 189-200.

21. R. O. Hughes, "Inschool Civic Activities," The Journal of
    the National Education Association, 37 (May, 1948),
   pp. 292-293.
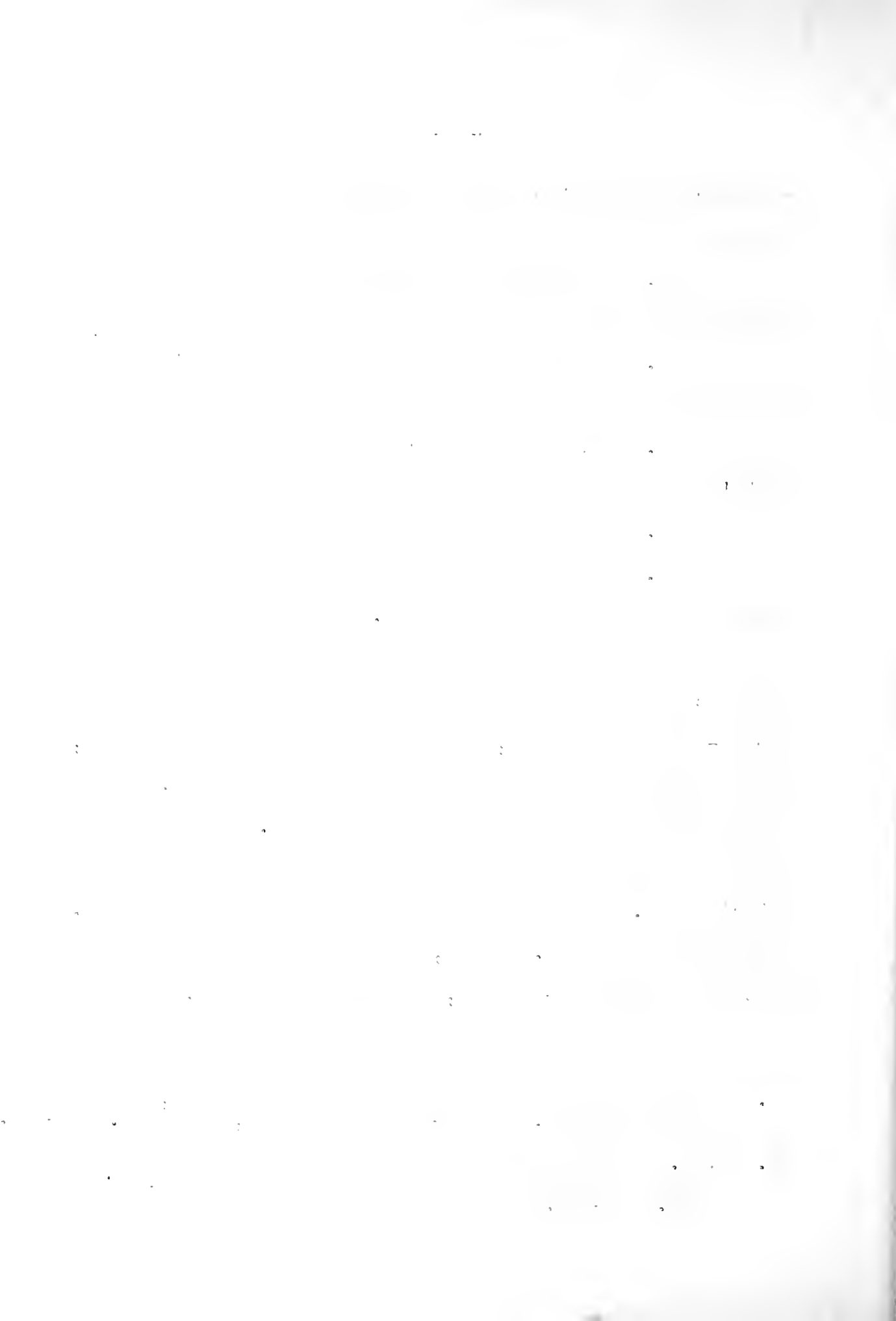
tional habits. Hughes uses the degree to which members of
a group enjoy what is undertaken and the degree to which
they cooperate readily as a means of evaluation.

The Educational Policies Commission says that the
value of experience is enhanced when accompanied by intelli-
gent thinking. As essential as is the experience, that alone
would result in denying the greatest contribution that in-
telligence can make - reflective thinking.[22] Democratic edu-
cation seeks to build a deep and lasting loyalty to democracy
by holding before youth the challenging of an unfinished task -
"the building in these United States of a society 'with liberty
and justice for all.'"[23] The Commission substantiates, too,
the highly significant factor of socialization in relation
to the intelligent thinking about democracy. The Commission
brings out the surprising fact that so few schools make pro-
vision for studying experiences as a means of gaining insight
into the meaning of democracy, one of the most fruitful ap-
proaches to the study of democracy as a way of living to-
gether. In a project carried through by a group of senior
students in history classes at George School in Pennsylvania,

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22. Educational Policies Commission, <u>Learning the Ways of
     Democracy</u>, 1940, p. 34.

23. <u>Ibid</u>., p. 39.
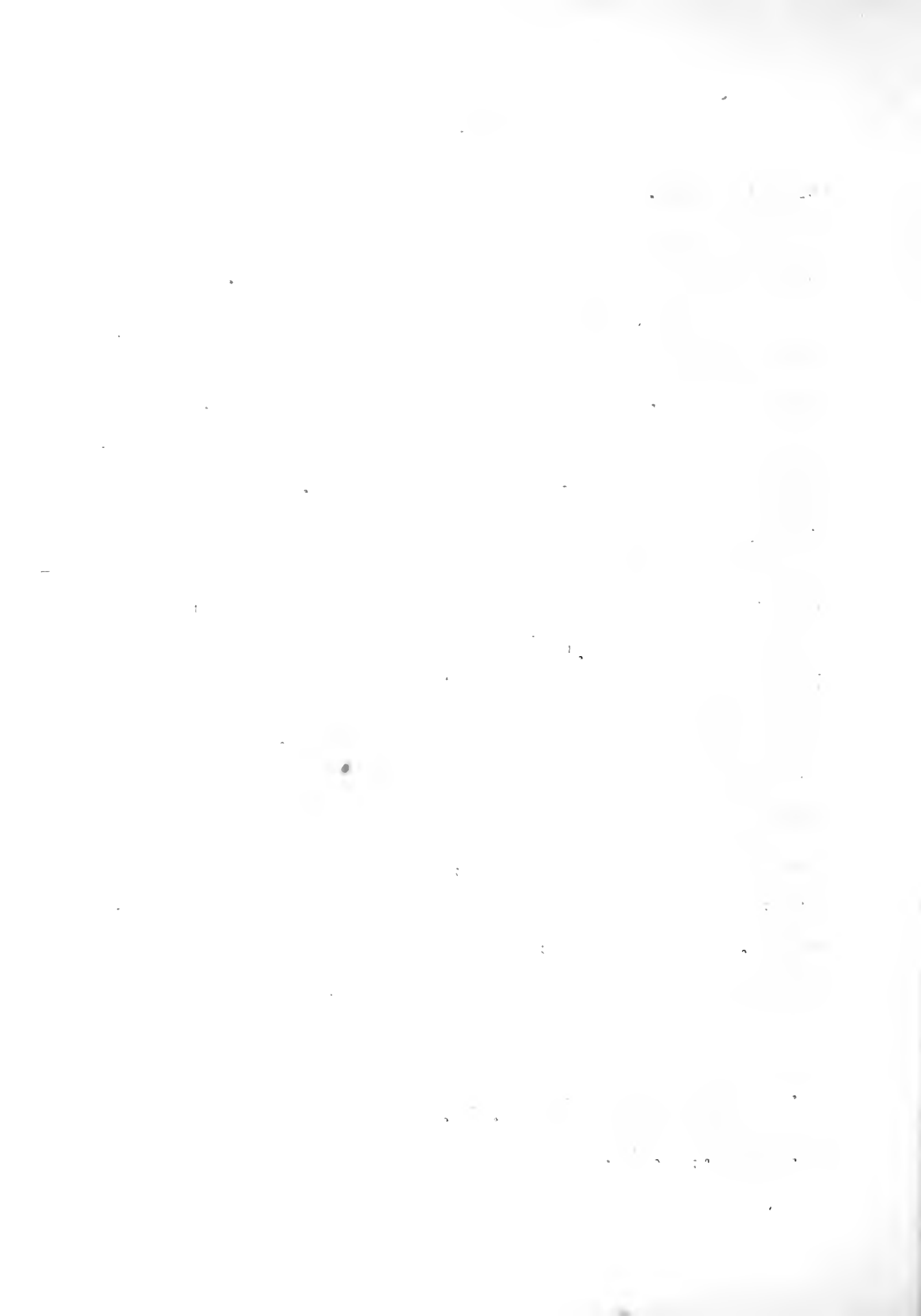
the frequently overlooked approach of utilizing the oppor-
tunities lying nearest at hand is illustrated. This action
on the part of these students followed a discussion of the
meaning of democracy at the time of the staff visit to the
school. The results were indicative of the high type of
thinking that proper stimulation can produce. The Commission
infers that the most significant contribution of these stu-
dents lay in their application of their thinking about democ-
racy to their collective life in the school.[24]

The Educational Policies Commission[25] found that the
approach to civic education was in nearly all schools frag-
mentary and incomplete. The schools in most instances had
not analyzed the full demands of citizenship education in a
democracy, the program having often grown by chance accumu-
lation of materials rather than by broad and systematic plan.
In some schools strong emphasis on an activity program has
resulted in neglect of the analysis of democracy and its
problems and demands. Instances of their complementing each
other, doing and thinking, are rare. Many courses in modern
problems and current affairs spread themselves over too wide
an area, becoming shallow. Although the problem courses

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24. Ibid., pp. 58-59.

25. Ibid., pp. 119-124.

should be flexible, they should have a pattern of organization that is seldom found. Civic education is not a special area of school work but is entwined in the total program. In all areas the Commission found much room for improvement. Further experimental investigations and developments and more adequate materials of instruction would improve the quality of instruction. Then they found civics teaching afflicted by twin evils - a sentimental attitude and a cynical attitude. There is no necessity for a civic education program to wait for the establishment of a particular course-of-study pattern. The one essential factor involved in the improvement of the curriculum in civic education is a teacher who has thought deeply about democracy as a way of living, who is himself a democratic person carrying the responsibilities of his citizenship, and who is free and alert to reconstruct the curriculum in the light of the needs both of the students and of society.

For building morale there is a distinctive emphasis upon emotional attachment to the ideals of human welfare as well as the intellectual understanding of those ideals the American Association of School Administrators maintains.[26] It is proposed that educators can speed the advance of human-

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26. American Association of School Administrators, Morale for a Free World, Twenty-second Yearbook, 1944, p. 282.
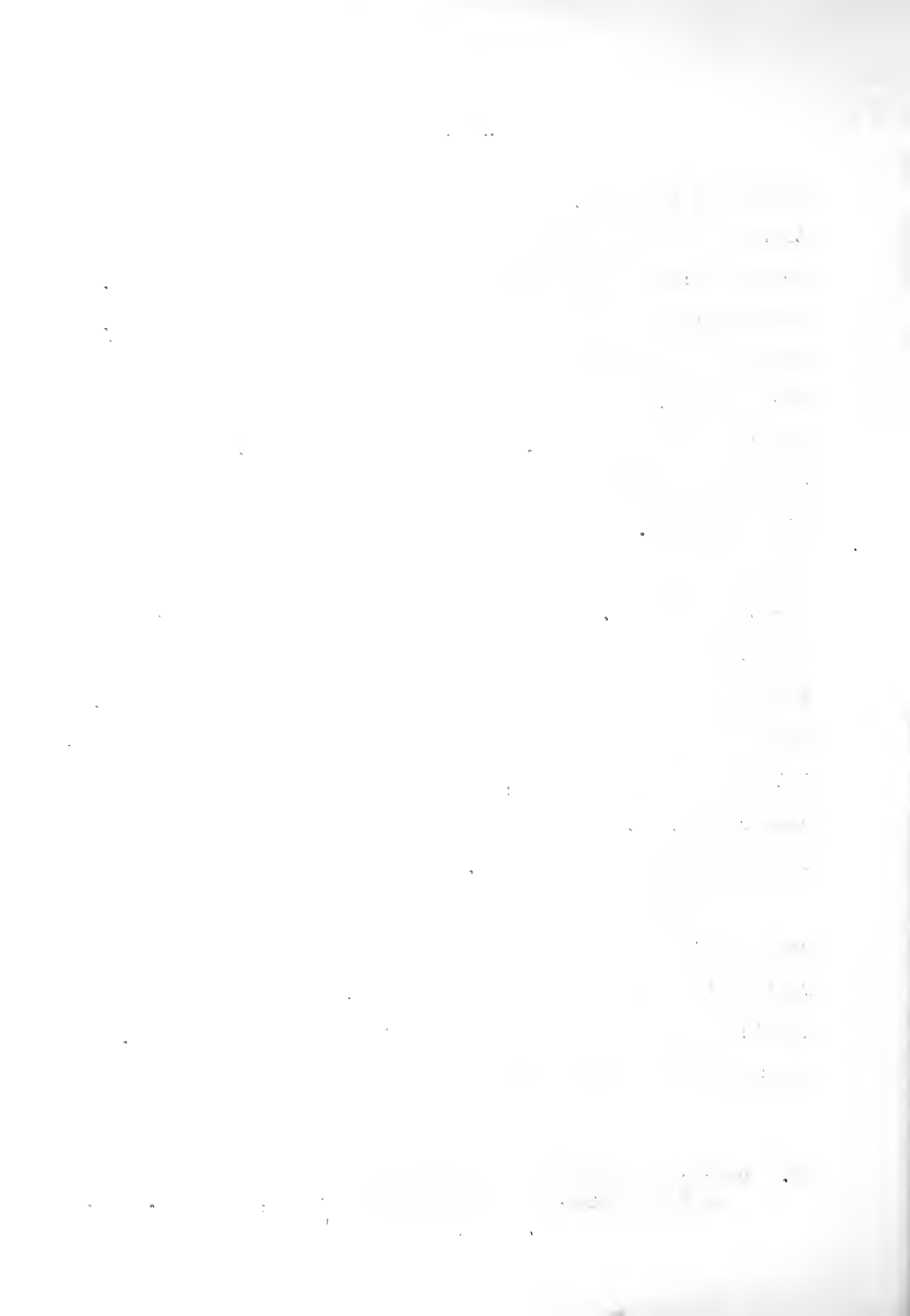
ity in America and beyond America by developing in their pupils habits of thinking, feeling, and acting that form a sound foundation for continued high morale in service for the general good.

Thus the practices of democracy fuse into a oneness with harmonious human relations for building morale.

> Democracy is a vast and complex cultural achievement in the sphere of human relations and social values. Like all of man's finest achievements, it is extremely delicate and fragile, difficult to maintain at the highest level of excellence and easy to let follow a course of gradual degradation. Democracy exists only in the patterns of behavior, feeling, and thought of a people. Let these patterns be destroyed and democracy itself is destroyed. And they will be destroyed if they are not acquired anew by each generation, acquired by the complicated process of teaching and learning. Much attention is devoted in the schools to insure the mastery by the young of reading, writing, and arithmetic, of technical skills and processes, of the arts and the sciences. This is all very good and necessary. But the mastery of the ways of democracy is a far more difficult task of teaching and learning, and certainly quite as important to free men. The doctrine that children will learn these ways, if left to themselves, is as unsound as the thought that they would master geometry without the help of their elders.[27]

In learning the ways of democracy several references have been made to both intellectual and emotional elements. Additional importance is attached in the statement of the

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27. Educational Policies Commission, The Education of Free Men in American Democracy, 1941, pp. 48-49.

American Association of School Administrators[28] that the "common cause" is grasped intellectually and adhered to emotionally. Neither can be neglected. Democracy - its meanings, its conditions, its forms, and its effects - can be understood by a totalitarian society, a society that seeks to understand society in order to destroy it. A democratic society is recognized by its attachment to democracy as distinguished from a mental or hostile attitude. Democracy must be an ideal rather than merely an idea. In reality the ideal "Democracy" has five categories - love of truth, freedom under law, fellow feeling, respect for human dignity, and personal responsibility. Each of these must be established in both the understanding and the affections.

For developing the factors of fitness and _esprit de corps_, the causes and technics will be largely the same in both totalitarian and democratic societies. However, in these two societies the ideational factor will have little in common. In the preceding chapter[29] reference was made to the totalitarian method of developing this factor. They employ the methods of indoctrination and emotional appeal in

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28. American Association of School Administrators, _Morale for a Free World_, _Twenty-second Yearbook_, 1944, pp. 30-32 and 37-38.

29. _Ibid._, p. 16.
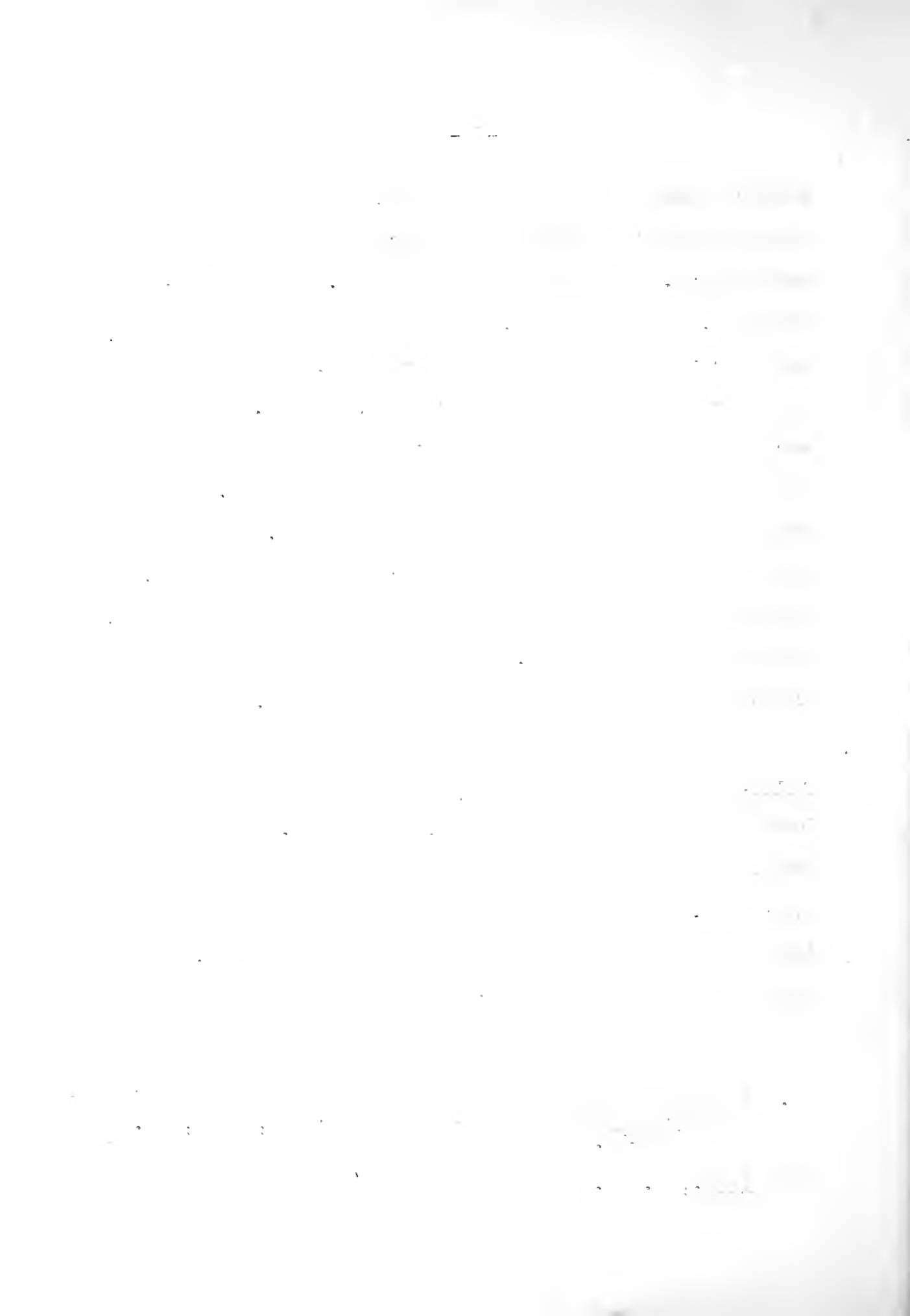
the development of a morale for their particular purpose. Deceiving and misleading their own people, they appeal to love of power or fear, arouse the combative emotions, and harden men's hearts. Exciting and justifying the selfish appetites by mass appeal and rigid discipline, they develop those elements of human nature which cause men to lose their individuality.

Then the effects of social environment are most pronounced on the ideational levels. Ideas are products of experience accumulated through generations, recorded and communicated and showing wide variability. It is at this point that there are found the most marked peculiarities in the morale of those societies which by history and conviction are democratic.[30] A state of mind, the Educational Policies Commission[31] declares, is the result not only of recent and immediate education and propaganda but also of habits of thinking, feeling, and acting which have been established over a long period of time. Any realistic program for developing morale among the American people will begin with attitudes and habits of mind which the people already possess.

Again there is the school's obligation for attitudes.

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30. Educational Policies Commission, Education and the Morale of a Free People, (November, 1941), pp. 4-5.

31. Ibid.
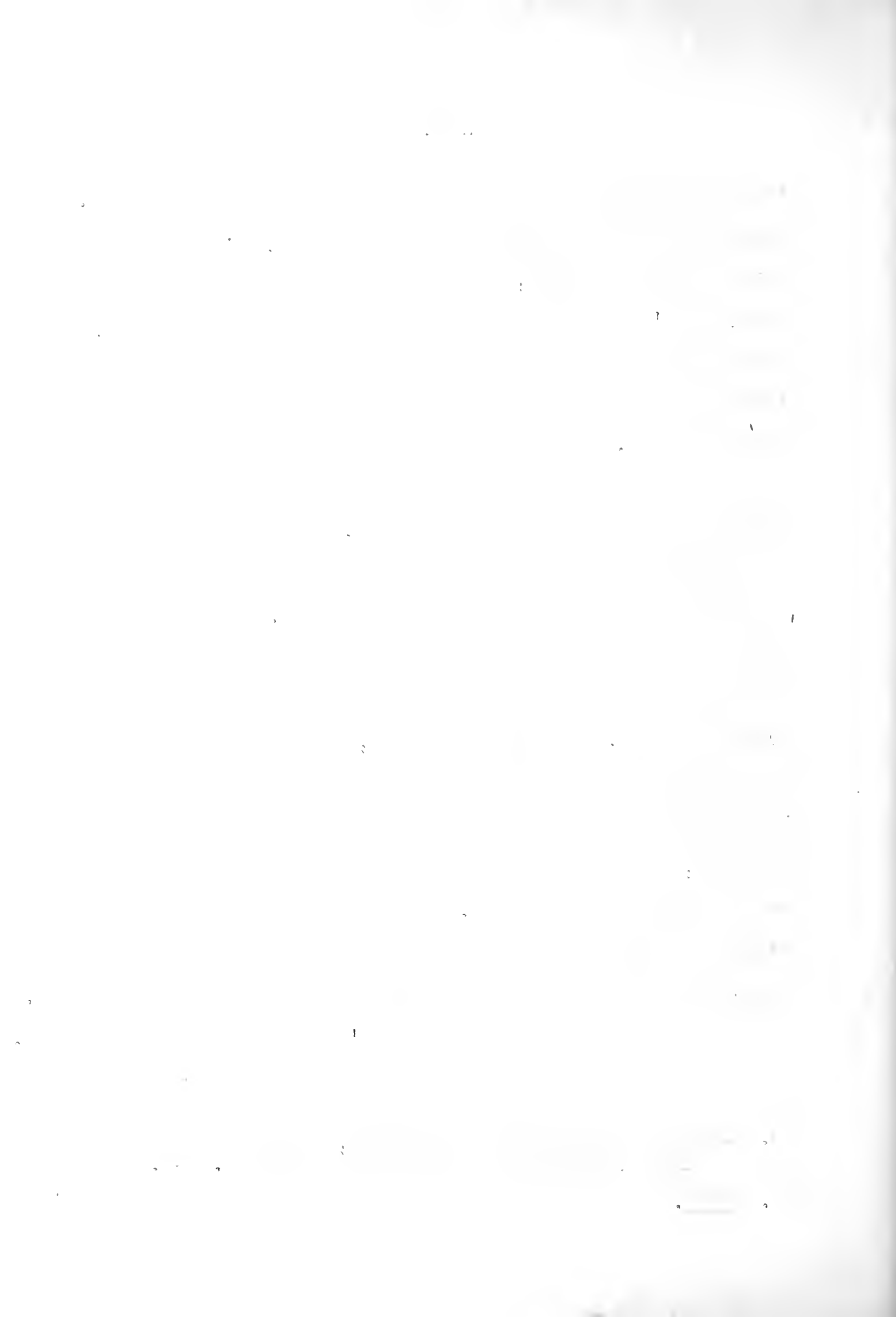
Attitudes. E. George Payne[32] lays stress upon the
vital role of education in developing attitudes. He explains
that attitudes are prejudices, sentiments, ideals, and the
like. They are the aspects of the mental life that give
direction to personality development and determine the char-
acter and nature of behavior. Attitudes are little understood
and have been given little consideration in determining the
educational program. It had been assumed that with the ac-
quirement of knowledge and the development of the intellect,
that attitudes would be properly developed and directed. And
although that special notion was discarded fifty years ago,
it has made little change in educational emphasis. Attitudes
are transmitted by being handed down from adults to children.
Therefore developing the intellect or acquiring knowledge
will not modify them. A program of education directed to-
ward the building of new attitudes and reconstructing the old
ones in line with the essentials of democratic living is edu-
cation's task he declares.

That attitudes reflect themselves in behavior and
knowledge is of value to the degree of interpretation in terms
of appreciation and of action Brown says. For creating

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32. E. George Payne, "The Essential Task of Education,"
Journal of Educational Sociology, 19 (September, 1945),
pp. 61-62 as quoted by Francis J. Brown, Educational
Sociology, pp. 549-550.

desirable attitudes he offers these methods - development and extension of primary group values, sensing and understanding the common elements of the cultural heritage, and striving together to achieve common goals.[33]

The American Association of School Administrators[34] signifies that the school plays an important part in building attitudes in that its influence is exercised during the plastic years when the fundamental attitudes are fashioned and fixed. Moreover, it is inferred that the school is the major channel of tradition by which the common creed is perpetuated. Above all, it is a place of socialization where the principles of democracy can be exemplified as well as taught.

Briggs and others have considered attitudes from the standpoints of causes, effects, and modification.[35] Scientific research has given only partial answers as to the sources of emotionalized attitudes. However, some prominence has been given to the following causal factors:[36]

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33. Francis J. Brown, Educational Sociology, p. 50.

34. American Association of School Administrators, Morale for a Free World, Twenty-second Yearbook, 1944, p. 43.

35. Briggs and others, The Emotionalized Attitudes, pp. 18-93.

36. Oscar Y. Gamel and C. Darl Long, "The Causes of Emotionalized Attitudes," The Emotionalized Attitudes, p. 35.
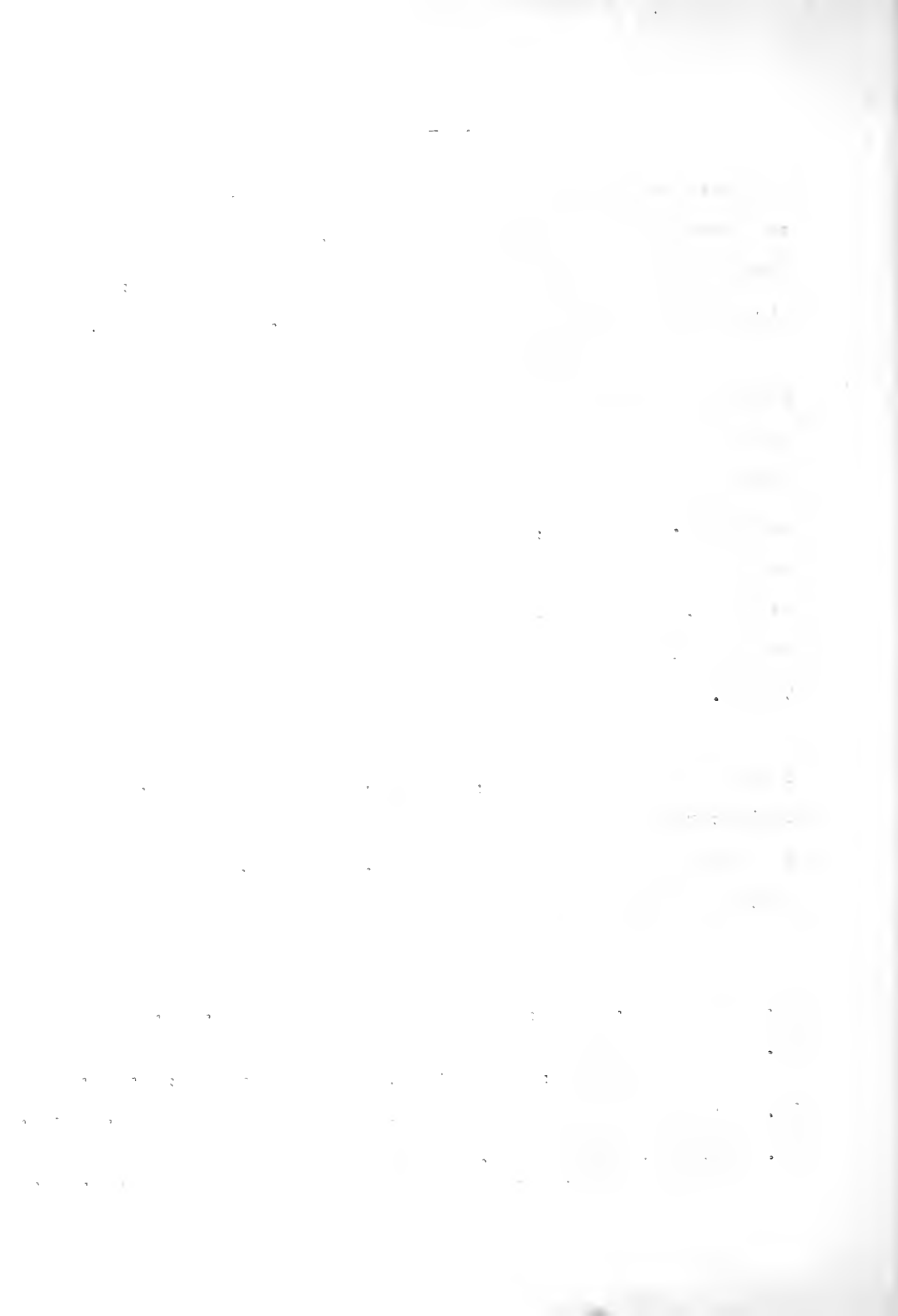
(1) consciousness of atypical physical, mental, social-moral, and economic conditions, (2) sex, (3) maturation, (4) vicarious experiences, (5) personal influences, (6) institutions, (7) social mores, (8) dramatic experience or trauma, and (9) environmental and geographical influences. The effects of attitudes cannot be ignored since they, like intelligence, are factors in a learning situation.[37] Deliberate striving to make attitude favorable is a basic factor in planning accomplishment. Attitudes manifest themselves in interests. High emotional intensity is probably detrimental to the learning process. Pupils suffering from emotional disturbance or from instability need help. Rewards and praise are more effective than punishment for building favorable attitudes. Motivation and incentives are conducive to learning. Although philosophy and "common sense" seem to prove that emotionalized attitudes affect conduct and character, there is little available research on the effects. Further observation and more accurate devices for measuring are needed.[38] Lack of opportunity for self-realization, frustration of efforts to guide behavior in what seems to the individ-

37. Alfred Baruth, "The Effects of Emotionalized Attitudes," The Emotionalized Attitudes, p. 58.

38. Howard H. Thomas, "The Effects upon Conduct and Character," The Emotionalized Attitudes, p. 67.
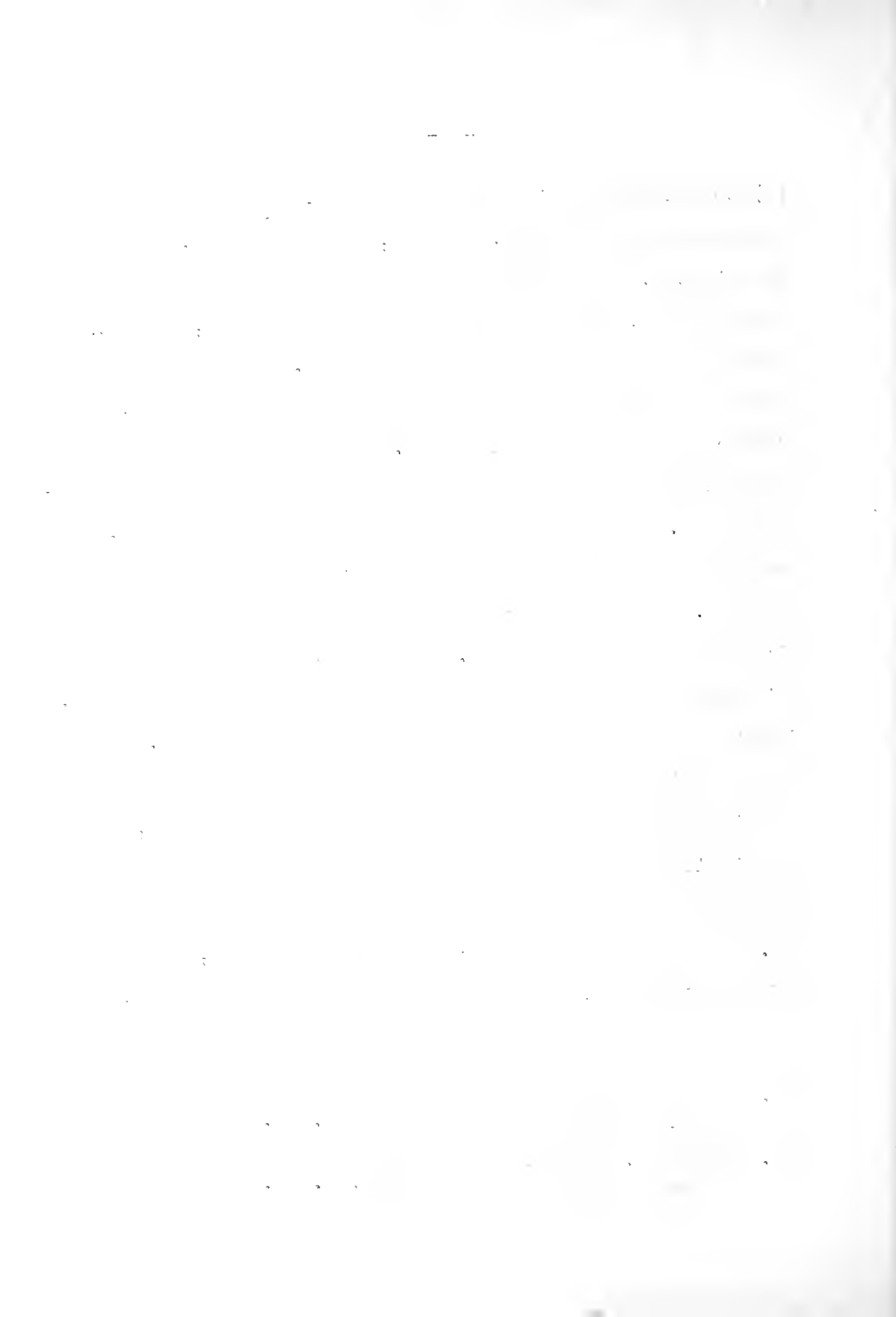
ual to be self-interest, results in maladjustment which pre-
vents development of emotional maturity.[39] The school itself
may by its organization push individuals toward maladjustment.
An experiment with autocratic and democratic control reported
more emotional instability and fighting, and more submission
to the experimentor in the autocratic situation. In the
democratically controlled group there was more spontaneous
activity, more cooperation, more sharing. Pardue perceives
true morale as springing from a deeply laid foundation of
constructive attitudes responding like spiritual reflexes
with the forces of negative stimuli.[40]

The John Dewey Society concludes that school people
are learning to create schools which can play their part in
developing youth accepted and secure, sensitive to others,
responsible in all they do as they are ceaselessly shaped
by social forces.[41]

Atmosphere. True discipline of mind and spirit
grow out of atmosphere believes Pearl S. Buck. Life is de-
pendent upon atmosphere. Trees flower and fruit when the

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39. J. Broward Culpepper and Eunice Ann Lloyd, "The Modifi-
     cation of Emotionalized Attitudes," The Emotionalized
     Attitudes, pp. 92-93.

40. Austin Pardue, Your Morale and How to Build It, Preface.

41. William Heard Kilpatrick and William Van Til, Inter-
     cultural Attitudes in the Making, Ninth Yearbook of
     The John Dewey Society, 1947, p. 246.

atmosphere is right, and they wither when it is not. We need a different kind of humanbeing for a new era. The new education for the new era must be an education in atmosphere, an atmosphere where the concern is for the growth of the child, not the convenience of the system.[42] More important than personnel, time, space, and money are the attitude of the administration and the atmosphere of the school, affirms Jersild.[43] Thus atmosphere constitutes the setting for the democratic process as the essence of morale building.

MEETING THE NEEDS

The challenge. The solution of the youth problem is urgent Counts perceives.[44] We shall have no lasting solution until the entire economic problem is solved for all age groups. Work must be the basis of the life of the individual. Second, we should face the moral problem - the problem of giving to youth a purpose in life that transcends the motive of individual success. The peculiar phase of the youth problem is education. Identifying ourselves and our program with

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42. Pearl S. Buck, "The Atmosphere of Education," The Journal of the National Education Association, 37 (May, 1948), pp. 282-283.

43. Arthur T. Jersild, "The Administrator and Child Development," The Journal of the National Education Association, 37 (May, 1948), p. 285.

44. George S. Counts, "The Challenge to the Secondary School," American Association of School Administrators Official Report San Francisco Convention, February 21-26, 1942, pp. 253-257.

the democratic heritage of our people, we should endeavor to give social direction and moral purpose to our entire educational enterprise. It is not true that youth want merely economic security. The years through which we have passed demonstrate clearly that there is something else equally important or even more important - a great purpose. The challenge is before us.

The school program. Agreeing with the generally accepted principle that education is for all American Youth, William F. Russell, Dean of Teachers College, Columbia University, summarizes the sort of education that the school should give in this period of social change.[45] The first goal is job conditioning with provision for vocational guidance and counseling, analysis of interests and abilities. This would include, too, much attention to clear expression, accurate spelling, legible writing, good manners, cooperative outlook. The second goal is better health. The third goal is called by some better citizenship; by others, better human relations.

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45. "What Do We Want from Our Schools?" Reader's Digest, 53 (July, 1948), pp. 97-100.
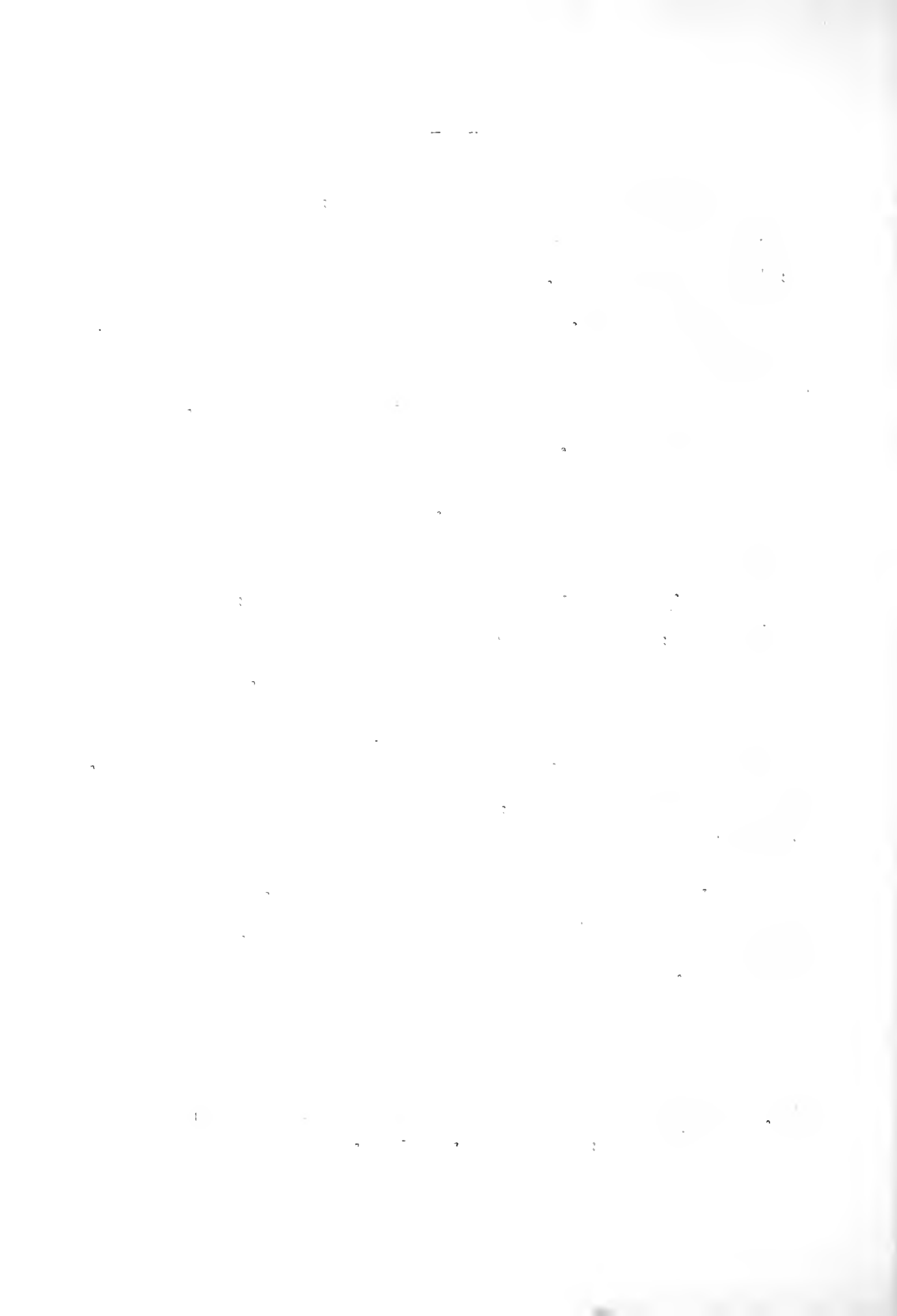
Economic organization. Hunter[46] incorporates in a policy for building permanent morale the adoption for our own people of a program providing:

First, a great measure of equality and security in economic condition and opportunity among the people.

Second, sharper attention to the general welfare and the long-time interests of society.

Carr says the task of inventing social machinery for routing young people into jobs as inevitably as they are routed into the first grade does not seem on the face of it more difficult than the invention of television.[47] It is time that the process of social invention was approached as systematically and as scientifically as the process of the material invention.

The Educational Policies Commission[48] adds emphasis to these beliefs in the statement that humanity and common sense forbid us to regard complacently the spectacle of want and needless suffering in a world and a nation fully capable of producing the goods and services sufficient for comfortable and even abundant living for all. A warning is issued,

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46. Frederick M. Hunter, "Education for a Free People - The Essentials of a Permanent Morale," American Association of School Administrators Official Report San Francisco Convention, February 21-26, 1942, p. 29.

47. Lowell Julliard Carr, Delinquency Control, pp. 254-255.

48. Educational Policies Commission, Education and the Morale of a Free People, November, 1941, p. 10.

however, that control could be too powerful thereby destroying personal initiative and the spirit of adventure into new economic enterprises upon which security itself depends.

It is far better that our social and economic system enable parents to provide for their children proper food, clothing, housing, and medical care rather than have them doled out as charity the American Association of School Administrators says.[49] However, the school and community have a social obligation to provide these essentials for children whose families cannot meet the requirements of optimal conditions for child development.

For building morale, other agencies - the home, the school, the church, the neighborhood, the theatre, the press, the radio, literature, all character-forming groups, government agencies - are highly important. The school cannot do the entire job says the Educational Policies Commission.[50] But, as mentioned formerly, it can be held responsible for doing its own part of the job well and for acting as the organized educational agency of society to stimulate and coordinate the efforts of other educational forces. Brown

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49. American Association of School Administrators, Morale for a Free World, Twenty-second Yearbook, 1944, p. 104.

50. Educational Policies Commission, Education and the Morale of a Free People, November, 1941, p. 26.
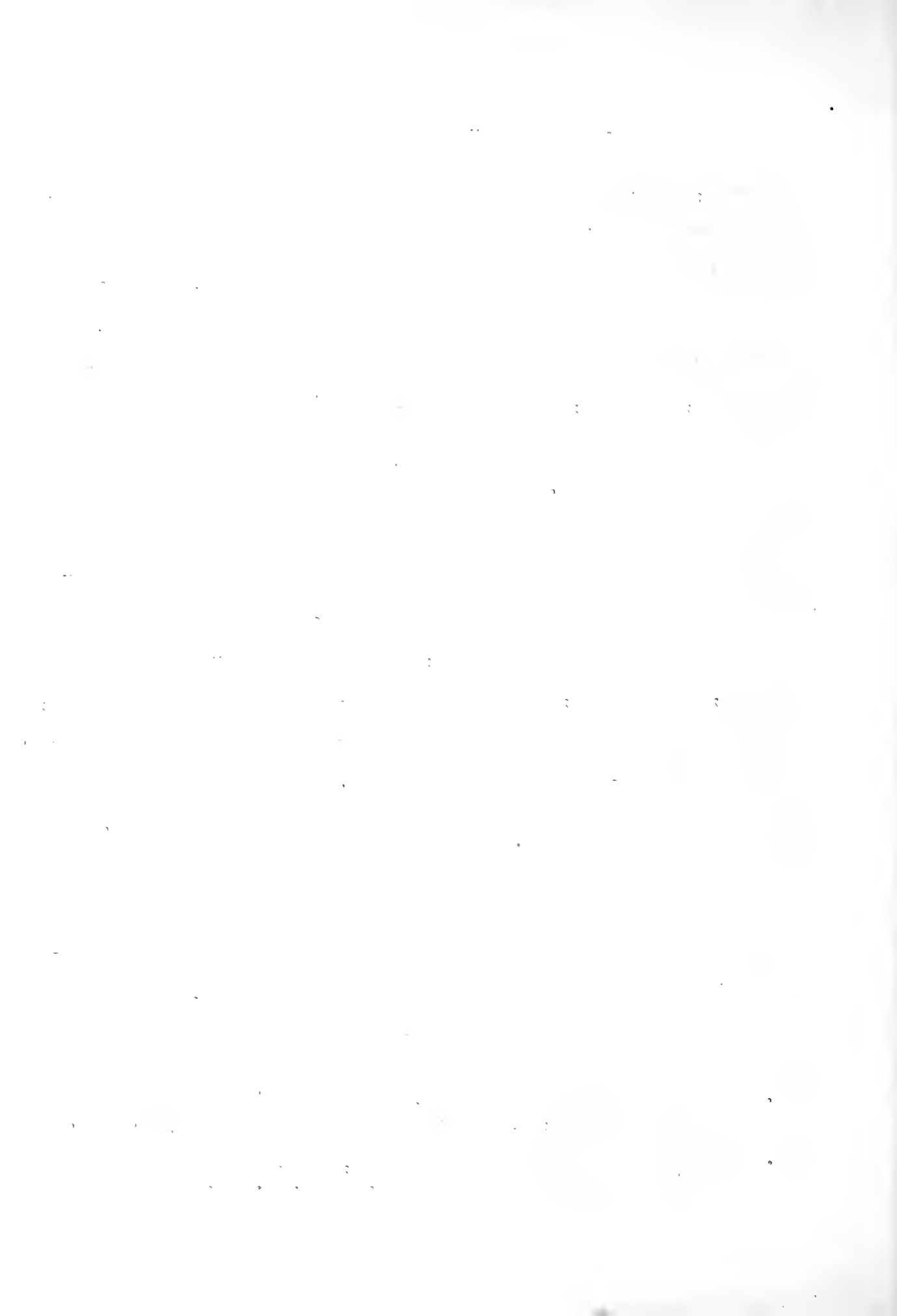
assigns the key position to the school:[51] "The school exists
as the agency of society for inducting the youth into such
activities of adult citizenship, broadly conceived, as may
be required by that society, supplementing the shortcomings
of other agencies in his education, to the end that he shall
pass from the protected environment of the school to the
self-directed, cooperative participation of adulthood."

Then meeting the needs of youth includes a scientif-
ic solution of the economic problem, which is an altogether
feasible undertaking. At the same time education is challenged
to the task of providing a program of instruction that would
prepare young people for harmonious living in an adult world.

The way is clarified in an educational design focused
on morale.

Summary. This review of literature has furnished
adequate evidence from which to determine the extent to which
the present curriculum provides for the morale of youth and
has offered illustrative practices from which to select experi-
ences that build morale.

It has shown the requirements of morale - its re-
lation to motivation and the underlying conditions affecting
it. These conditions have been considered in two separate,

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51. Francis J. Brown, Educational Sociology, p. 338.
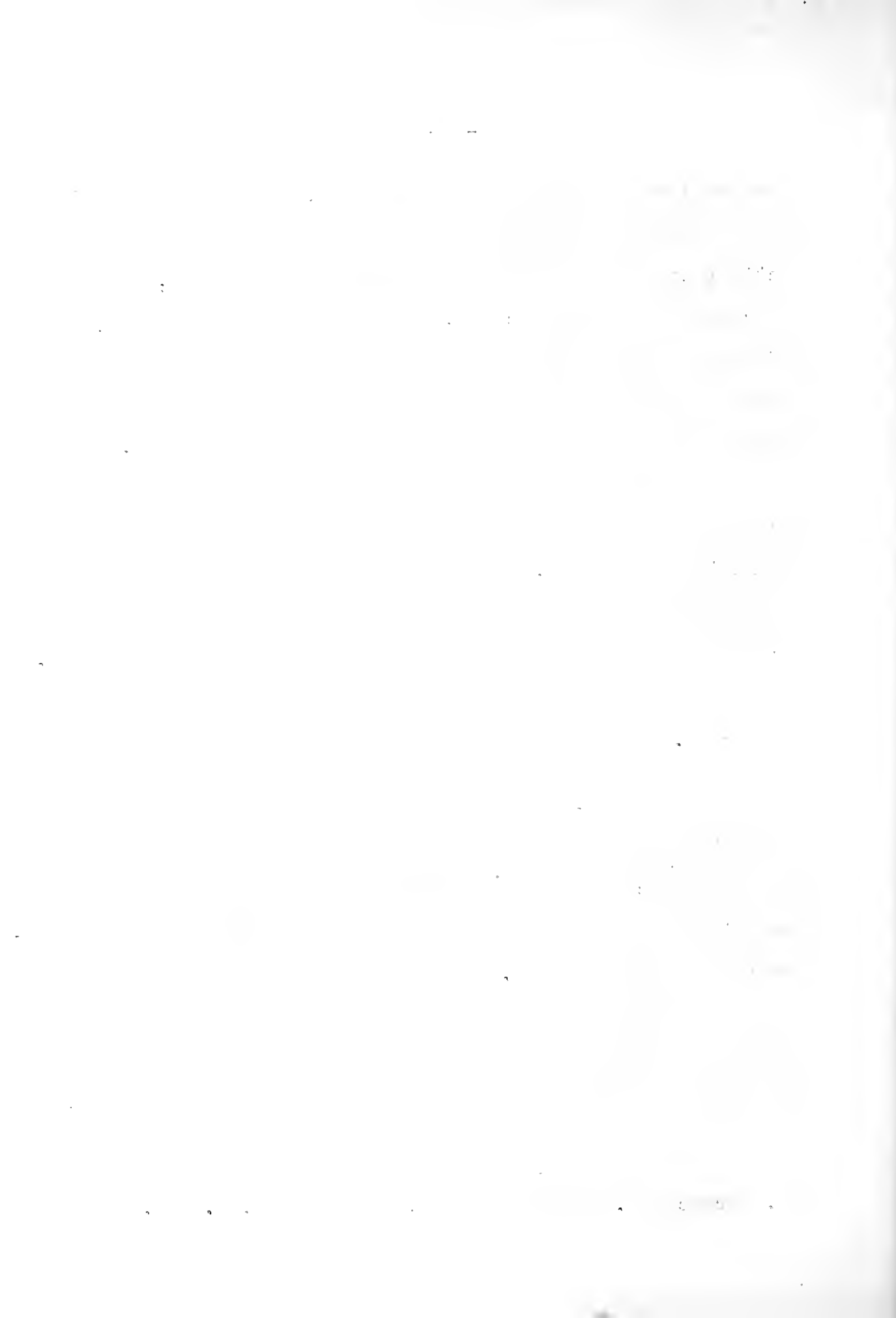
yet similar, divisions - physical, psychological, and ideational factors as perceived by the American Association of School Administrators and health, economic security, psychological security, confidence in associates, and loyalty to a common purpose ingredients as discerned by the Educational Policies Commission. The factors and the ingredients are substantially the same, the factors being composed of the ingredients. Each element affects and is affected by each other element and a blending into a composite whole with new qualities not possessed by either of the separate elements results in morale.

It has been shown demonstratively that the school can contribute to each element of morale to the extent that the desired end results. These contributions could be made through a program consisting of three phases - provision for health; provision for individual interests, abilities, immediate and future needs; provision for harmonious human relations. That the school can contribute not only through its own program but also through other educational agencies in a cooperative effort has been indicated. The inference has been made that our economic and social system can provide scientifically for economic security.

The greatest present inadequacy - teaching the meaning of democracy, the essence of morale building - has been emphasized. In an atmosphere influential to growth,
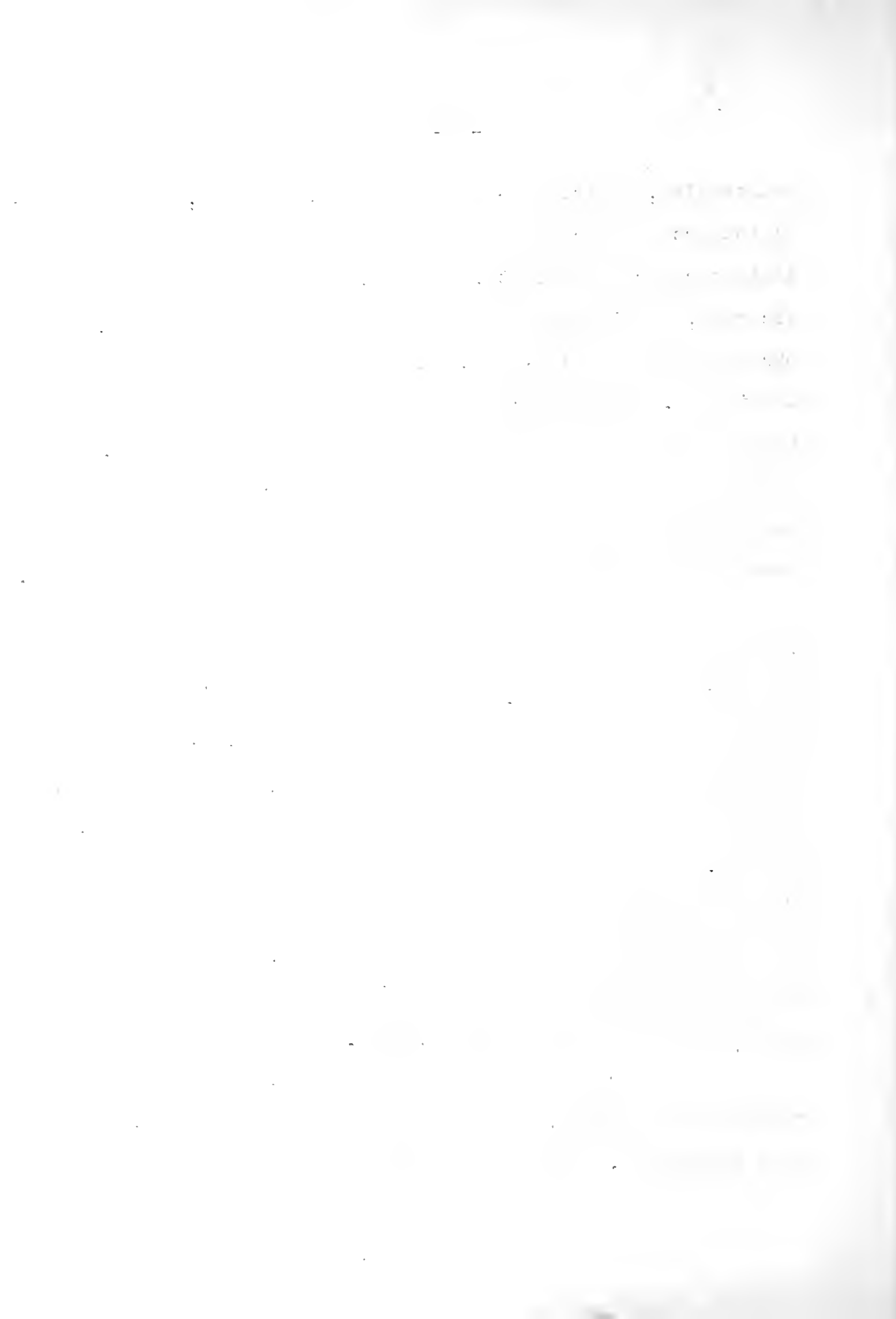
democratic practice is enhanced and desirable attitudes are built through factual information, discussion, organized class studies, clubs, student council, pageantry, ritual, and music that are stimulative to reflective thinking and intense feeling in relation to the democracy that America defends. The degree of participation and of achievement are dependent upon previous experiences. Such conditions and experiences thus build morale by contributing to each of its elements in either nomenclature - the three factors: physical, psychological, ideational; or the five ingredients: health, economic security, psychological security, confidence in associates, loyalty to a common purpose.

This inquiry has furnished adequate evidence for evaluation. Great shortcomings exist, the greatest being the teaching of democracy whose essence is morale building. Thereby can the extent to which the present curriculum provides for the morale of youth be determined. An analysis of the conditions affecting morale and of the elements composing it shows that a program focused on morale could be designed and that such a program would meet the needs of youth.

It is a challenging aim.
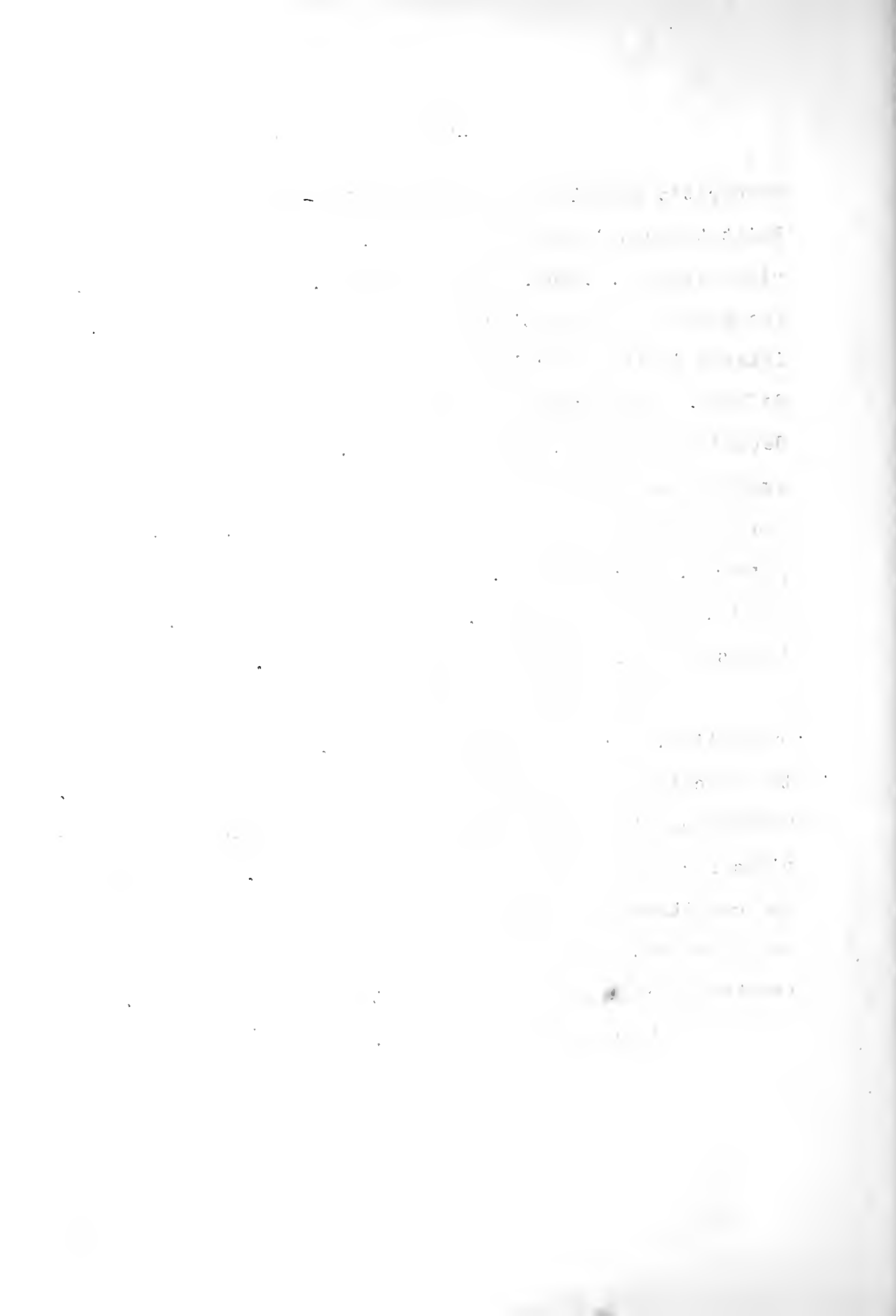
CHAPTER III

EXPERIMENTAL AND STATISTICAL FACTORS

Recent experiments, observations, and figures are
used in this study since it is concerned with the status of
current conditions. These searchings and findings are a lens
through which effects are observed and causes sought.

AN ELEMENTARY EXPERIMENT

Involvements. This process which was conducted with
a group of forty-four elementary children was both causal-
comparative and experimental. The whole process can correct-
ly be called an experiment, however, since a causal-comparative
method is in fact an "uncontrolled experiment."[1] The perform-
ance was carried on during the school year of 1947-1948 with
follow-up during the first semester of the 1948-1949 term.
The school which is situated in Hillsborough County, Florida,
has both elementary and secondary divisions. The enrollment
ranging between 950 and 1050 approximates itself almost
equally between the two sections.

The purpose of this procedure was for establishing
the cause of the status of the group and for determining the

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1. A. S. Barr, William H. Burton, and Douglas E. Scates,
The Methodology of Educational Research, p. 533.
These authors state that one might be justified in
calling the causal-comparative method of research,
the "uncontrolled experimental" method, except that,
according to customary usage, the term "experimental"
implies controlled rather than uncontrolled conditions.
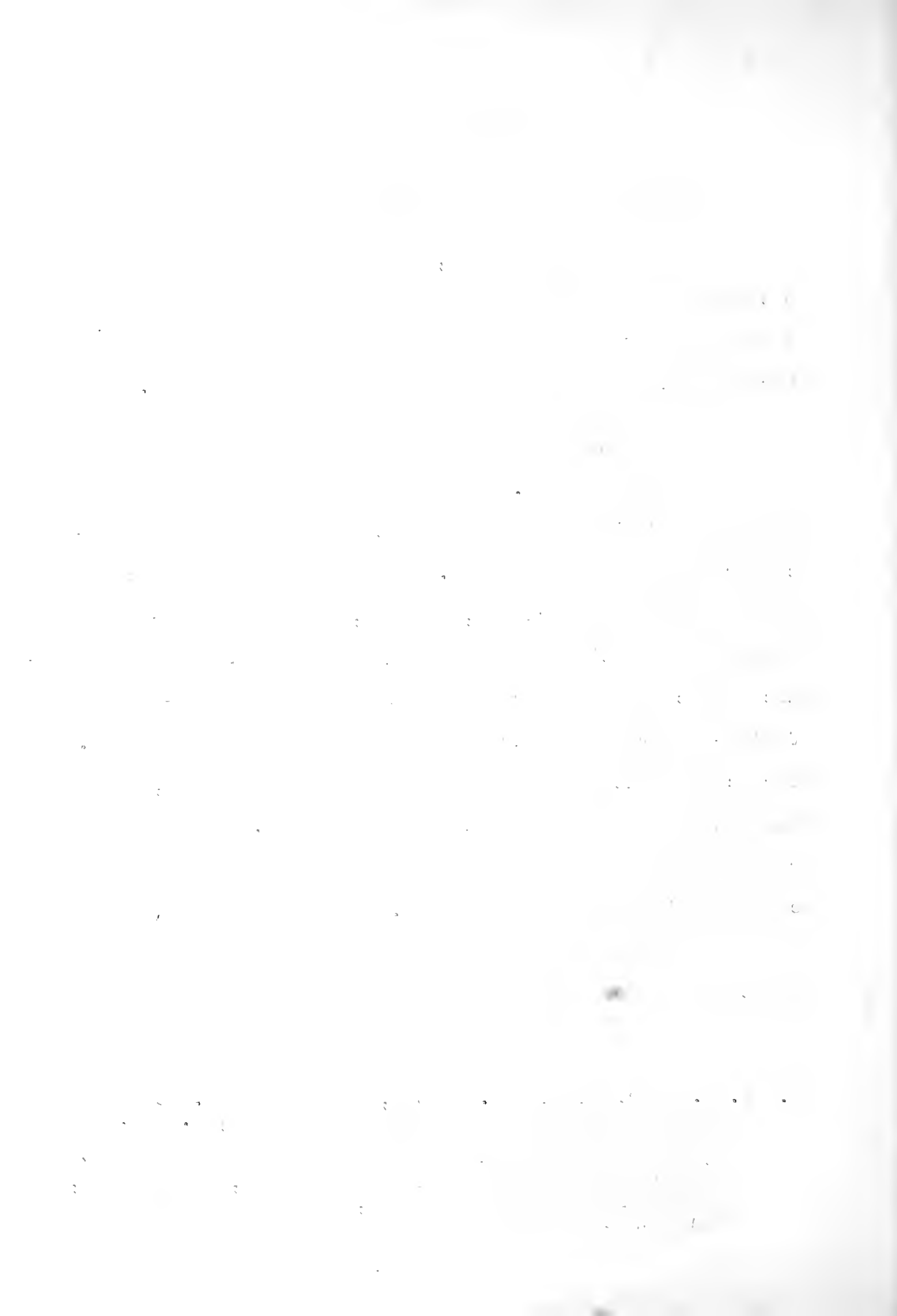
effectiveness of a technique, democratic living with a minimum of competition.

In seeking the cause of the status of the group and in comparing them with another group, the performance was causal-comparative. It was experimental within the group as factors were controlled during the period of inquiry, the specifically controlled element being absence of competition in a democratic setting.

The particular bearing that this experiment had upon morale was its influence on mental security. Inability to meet a situation with which one is faced and circumstances that make one feel that one's efforts are insignificant or are unappreciated are detrimental. On the other hand, a sense of genuine participation in a significant endeavor under circumstances that make one feel that he is an honored participant, that he is valuable and appreciated, is stimulating.[2]

The status. The school room itself with its accumulation of dirt and dust - layer upon layer - its display of pickle jars and cans which had probably served as vases and flower pots, and its meager furnishings was as bare of materials with which to work as Mother Hubbard's cupboard. A pleasant contrast were the objects upon which the work was

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2. Educational Policies Commission, Education and the Morale of a Free People, November, 1941, p. 13.

to be performed, the children themselves. Bright and happy, timid and shy, cared-for and clean, or dirty and neglected, they were idylls of opportunity.

All except eight of these seventeen girls and twenty-seven boys had attended the particular school the entire three or four years of their school lives. Five of the eight had attended that school the year before. The ages ranged from eight to thirteen years. The process began with the measurement of their status. They had been placed in the fourth grade.

Twelve could not read. The reading levels of the other thirty-two ranged from first to second grade. Twenty-two did not recognize the letters of the alphabet. The handwriting for the most part was illegible, and all of it was of poor quality. None could spell well enough to do any written work independently. They knew nothing about neatly arranged written work free from blots and eraser marks. Neither did they know anything about sentence structure, capitalization, punctuation, margins, or headings for papers. Only one level of language use was in evidence - the illiterate. Not even one had ever memorized a poem. None knew the addition combinations. So in finding the simplest answers, in which neither borrowing nor carrying was involved, crutches had to be employed. They could yell somewhat off-pitch, but they could not sing. They exhibited no inclination to draw.

These children had no sense of order or system; none knew how to study or how to proceed with the simplest assignment. A method of attacking a new word or learning a new word was an entirely unheard of matter. They had no idea of working independently; neither did they have any idea of working cooperatively.

The varied maladjustments - staying alone, clinging to the teacher, quarreling, bullying, tattling, whining, contentiousness, arrogance, dominance - were in evidence.

Observation and physical examinations revealed fifty minor physical defects. One other defect was of a serious nature and required hospitalization. The victim was by far the most outstanding pupil in the group in every respect. He was one of three entering that school for the first time. Sixty per cent of these defects were among the boys.

There were no entries on the permanent record cards in the spaces provided for evaluation of personal and social assets, for withdrawal and re-entry records, for library, for standard test records, for school physical examinations, for special interests and observations, or for suggestions and recommendations. In ten instances the attendance was not recorded. The attendance of the others ranged from fair to good. Records on some of these children were missing entirely. Their scholarship records were grievously inconsistent with their demonstrated achievement. Therefore the

few scrawly entries meant nothing.

Explicit individual records of the diagnosis results
including a check-list of observed health, social, and work
habits were made.

Similar conditions existed in the other fourth
grade group, the two third grade groups, and one of the sec-
ond grade groups. The other second grade teacher preferred
not to face the facts.

Subjection to the factor. Absence of competition
in a democratic setting, the specifically controlled element
in this experiment, has an accompanying attribute, individual-
ization. To the degree that individualization was possible,
there was provision for needs, interests, and abilities.
Self-competition and honored participation in group endeavors
served as stimulants.

The school furnishes a perfect setting for learning
by practice how to live in a democratic society. This special
situation offered abundant opportunity for participation in
cooperative enterprise toward making the school a better
place in which to live and grow. Since activities are de-
pendent upon previous experiences in democratic procedures,
there was very simple organization. The beginning was made
through cooperative planning and committee organization be-
ginning with seven committees - blackboard, windows, walls,

floor, library, desks, flower. Later there were others - social, bulletin, lunchroom, materials, devotional, exhibit. As time progressed, class officers were elected.

Pleasant surroundings influence morale, especially if everyone is responsible for obtaining and maintaining these surroundings.[3]

Both general and more specific aims were set up. (Figures 1 and 2) These specific aims were expected to result in ability to perform on fifth grade level enthusiastically, independently, cooperatively, creatively, spontaneously. They were to manifest themselves in skills, abilities, habits, attitudes that would result in harmonious living.

A flexible program of study-play-activity so organized as to provide individual attention, opportunity for sharing, and opportunity for developing personal interests served as a means to those ends. According to the Educational Policies Commission,[4] before much progress on the road to democratic efficiency can be made, three problems must be mastered - purpose, procedure, personnel. This warning was heeded in every attempt. From the beginning there was co-

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3. American Association of School Administrators, _Morale for a Free World, Twenty-second Yearbook_, 1944, p. 173.

4. Educational Policies Commission, _Learning the Ways of Democracy_, 1940, p. 17.

Skills
{
Fundamental processes
Effective thinking
Creativeness
Functional information
}

Effective communication
{
Reading
Speaking
Writing
Listening
}

Abilities
{
Appreciations
Interests
}

Health
Inquiring mind

Habits
{
Study
Work
Play
}
Personal
Social

Attitudes

}
Harmonious living
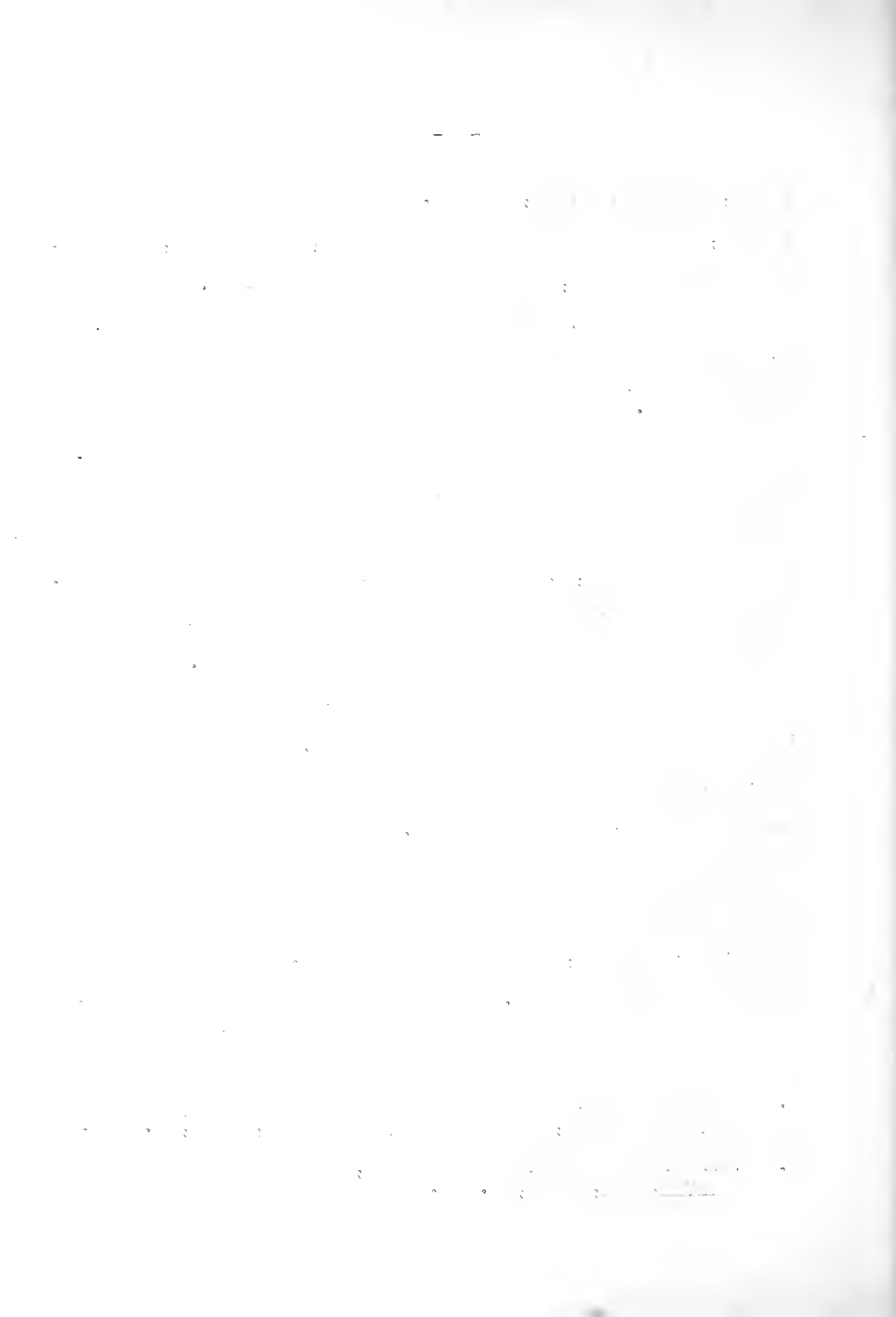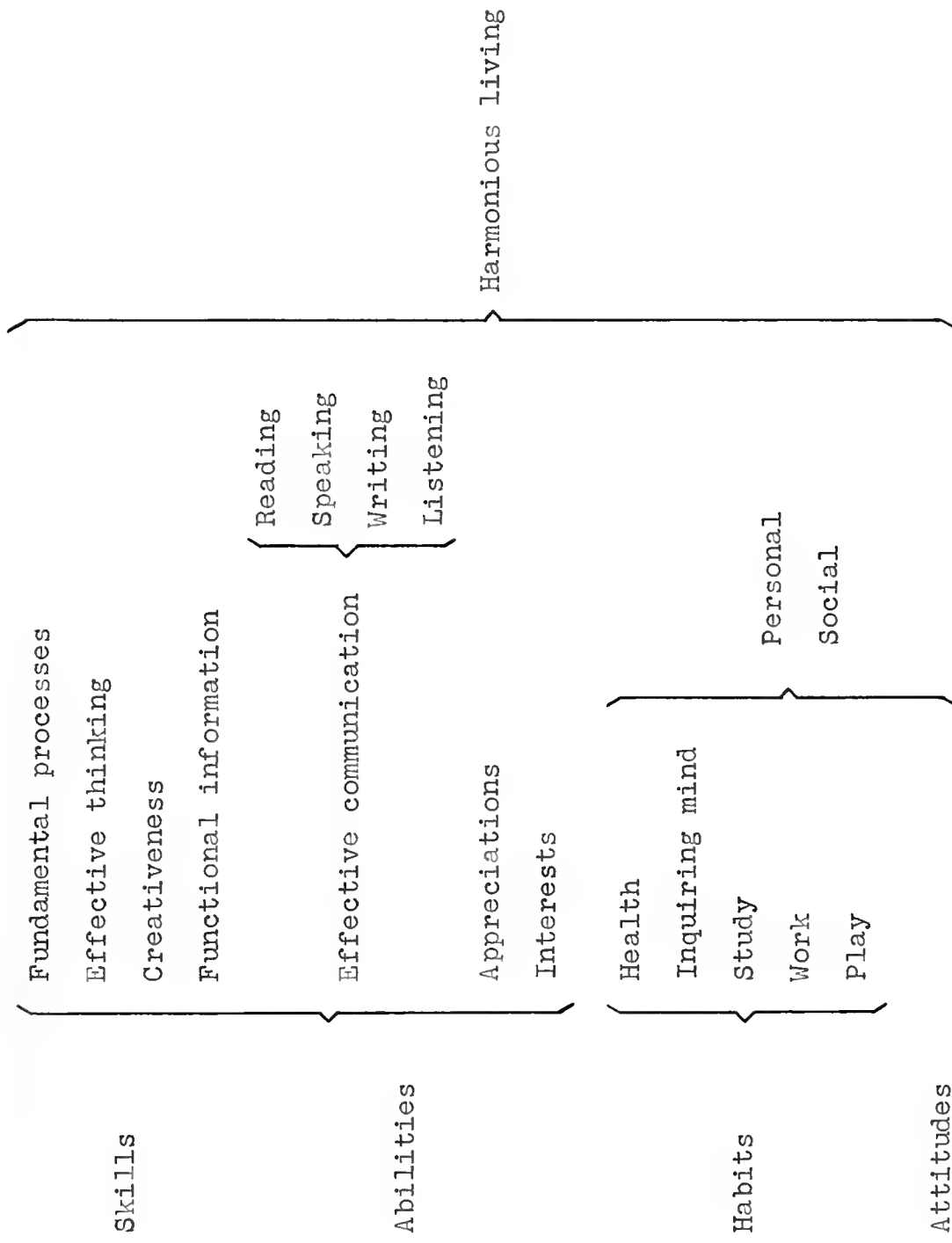
FIGURE 1

GENERAL OBJECTIVES

Health —
- Correction of defects
- Practice of good habits
- Improving immediate surroundings

Reading — Material on fifth grade level
- Personal pleasure
- General information
- Following directions
- Specific answers
- Pleasure to others
- Reproduction in own words

Spelling —
- Mastery of 600 words
- Syllabication
- Accent
- Synonyms, homonyms, antonyms
- Diacritical marks

Handwriting — Legible with proper slant and letters correctly formed

Oral Expression —
- Correct usage, Correct pronunciation — Good-mannered conversation; Orderly discussion
- Good enunciation — Reproduction — Stories, Information, Directions
- Good articulation, Increased vocabulary — Short talks

Written Expression —
- Correct form, Spelling, Punctuation, Capitalization —
  - Simple declarative sentences
  - Simple interrogative sentences
  - Simple imperative sentences
  - Simple exclamatory sentences
  - Compound declarative sentences
  - Complex declarative sentences
- Short paragraphs, Friendly letters, Copying poetry

FIGURE 2 - Page 1

SPECIFIC AIMS

(Continued on next page)

Category	Items
Interpretation	The Christmas Story 10 poems including 3 Psalms } Individually Choral reading
Dramatization	Many scenes from texts Plays for special days
Numbers	Addition - Four numbers of four figures including dollars and cents Subtraction - Numbers of four figures including dollars and cents Multiplication { Three-place multiplicand; two-place multiplier Four-place multiplicand; one-place multiplier including dollars and cents Division - Five-place dividend, one-place divisor including dollars and cents Problems - One and two step including dollars and cents Dry measures; liquid measures; table of length
Art	Illustrate poetry Illustrate seasons and holidays Illustrate objects of environment Express feelings, thoughts, imaginations Complete two class friezes Recognize three famous paintings

FIGURE 2 - Page 2

SPECIFIC AIMS

Music

Sing well
- Four hymns
- Three patriotic songs
- Songs for every holiday
- Four Christmas songs
- Group selections from adopted book

Listen appreciatively – Children's Operettas

Rudiments
- Notes
- Staff
- Keys of C and G
- 3/4 and 4/4 time

Rhythmic experiences
- Folk games
- Clapping
- Marching

Create music

Science

Influence of soil, water, air, sunshine on plants and animals
The habits of five kinds of birds

Common wild flowers
- Names
- Where they grow
- Season

Common animals of woods
- Names
- Where they live
- Habits

Social Studies

History of our nation through stories
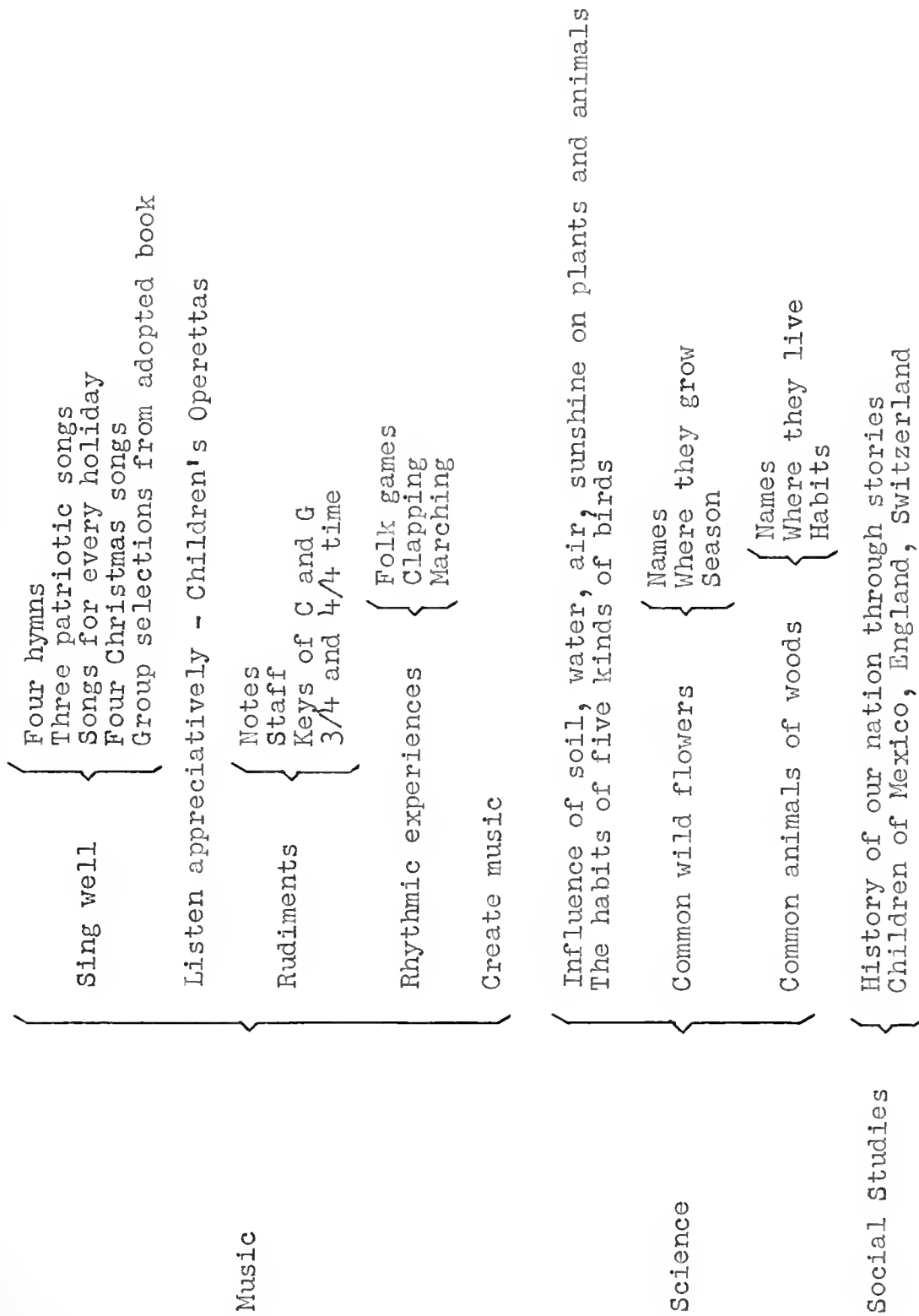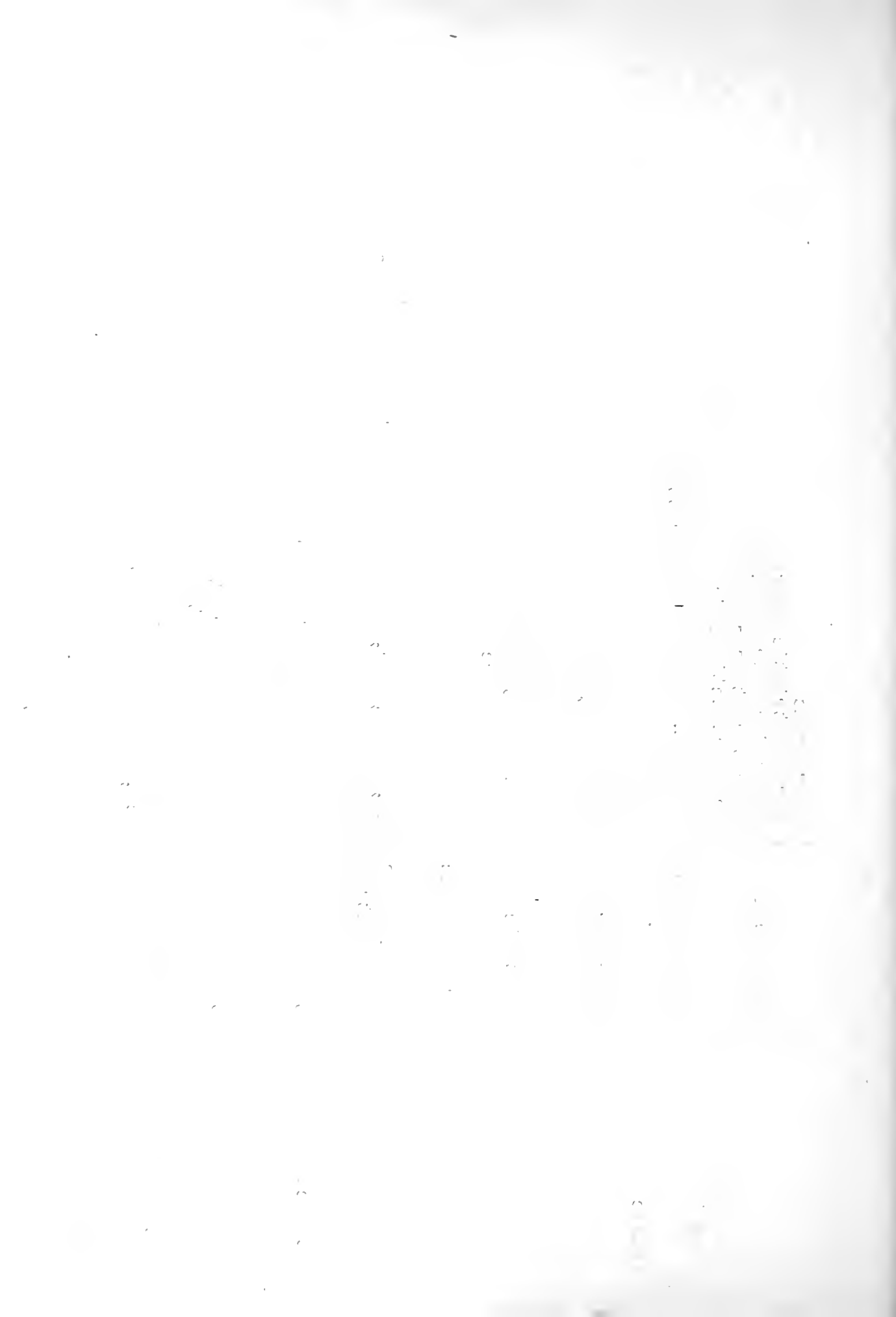Children of Mexico, England, Switzerland

FIGURE 2 – Page 3

SPECIFIC AIMS

operative planning. Something of the nature of the experiences
is implied in the results. (Chapter IV) Purposeful experiences
provided each individual with opportunity to succeed and to
excel. Self-competition was substituted for the usual device -
desire to excel others.

Through Bible stories, fairy tales, The Adventures
of Tom Sawyer, The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn, and Treasure
Island the devotional period and the story hour provided expe-
riences for sharing. Films for the school's movie projector
added enjoyment and understanding in science and the social
studies. The home room library, art materials, and the regu-
lar texts offered inspiration for creative effort and person-
al growth.

Parents, pupils, the librarian, the school nurse,
and other friends assisted in supplying materials and making
improvements.

Explicit individual progress records including
anecdotal records and a check-list of observed health, social,
and work habits were kept.

Represented in the purposes of the group was in-
dividual welfare. Then with every individual expected to
respect the rights of others while exercising his own rights,
to accept responsibilities along with privileges, and to con-
sider always the welfare of the group there was progress day
by day in the direction of the desired aims.

A SECONDARY EXPERIMENT

The setting. This experiment, or succession of
experiments, conducted with one hundred seventy-five students
extended over a period of six years, 1941-1946. The perform-
ance was carried on in the same school as was that of the
elementary group. And the purpose was identical with the
prime purpose of the former group, determining the effective-
ness of a technique - absence of competition in a democratic
setting.

Again, as in the other group, the bearing upon
morale was its influence upon mental security. The subject
itself, speech, offered abundant opportunity. Since the
purpose of all speech is effective communication, this prime
objective remained unchanged. However, there were specific
aims in every undertaking, both for each individual and for
the group. The various devices used in progressing toward
the end are accomplishments within themselves and may right-
ly be called specific goals. In each instance the initial
step was cooperative planning by the particular group with
emphasis upon the special interests of the members. From
those interests, the activities were planned with provision
for both individual and group interests. Each group follow-
ed a pattern of organization that incorporated in their plans
various phases of the speech arts. Those activities them-

selves provided both for individual achievement and for gen-
uine participation in a significant endeavor with the group.
The specific aims in each undertaking were a directive force.

Anecdotal records as well as individual evaluation
records, which were kept both by the teacher and each student
himself, indicated progress. Culminating outcomes were indices
of success.

A typical undertaking which proceeded over a period
of eight weeks follows:

THE STORY OF DRAMA

Introduction. "Our theatre needs no apology," says
Crafton; "it has proved itself through 3000 years of service
to human culture; it has been of significance in a score of
different civilizations."[5]

Why does an audience go to the theatre? When we
look in at the dusty temple theatre of India of 1500 B.C.,
the hillside theatre of Athens, the spectacular theatre of
Rome, a medieval cathedral, then the London Theatre of
Shakespeare, the Theatre Guild Theatre in New York, a little
country theatre of today, we might conclude that the audience
had a great diversity of purpose.

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5. Allen Crafton, Play Directing. New York: Prentice-Hall,
Inc., 1938, p. 2.

From the study of the Greek audience, it seems that it went to the theatre to learn about the will of the gods and to enjoy a work of art - the song and dance and sparkle of pageantry. The Romans demanded sensation. We enter a medieval theatre at the time of a mystery play and decide that the audience had come together for the good of its collective soul. At an Ibsen play we believe the group to have its thought focused upon a social or psychological problem.

Then all, on this common ground, desire an experience - a personal, emotional experience, one in which there is some truth about life.

Because of this universal desire and because of the widespread interests of students in dramatic experiences, it was believed that this undertaking would open a gate into a field of delights, each glimpse of which would enhance enjoyment and increase qualities of judgment and taste.

Specific Objectives

1. To develop creative desires and powers of self-expression.

2. To provide opportunity for self-discovery, self-reliance; for development of persistence, enthusiasm, intellectual honesty and adventurousness, constructive use of leisure.

3. To provide opportunity for social service - opportunity for working together and opportunity for sharing.
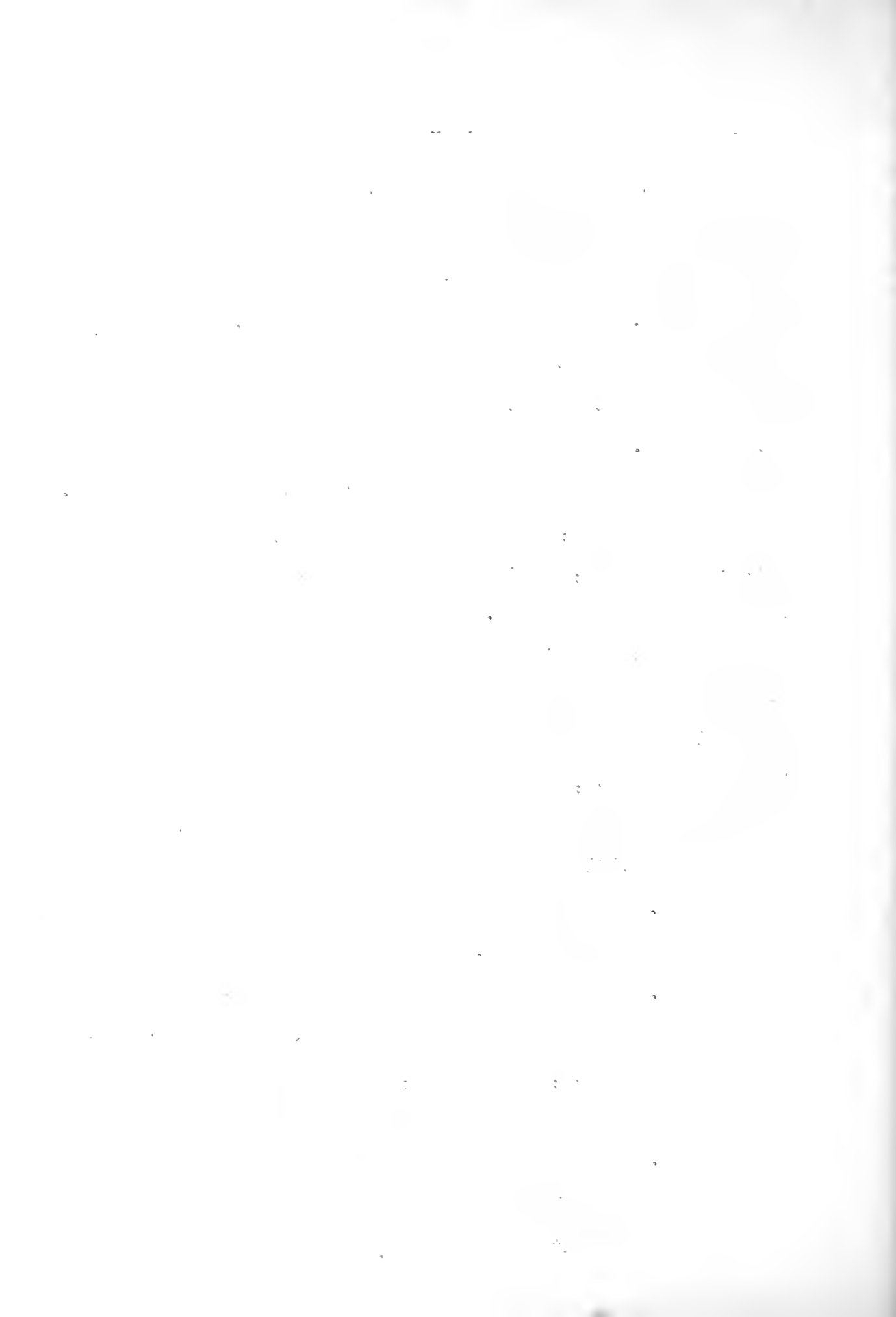
4. To develop powers of observation.

5. To learn the history of drama.

6. To learn the contributing factors of early and succeeding periods of drama.

7. To determine how the underlying principles of drama are the same throughout the ages.

8. To understand how the play reflects the time in which it was written.

9. To discover the major conditions which made modern drama different from or like that of previous periods.

10. To provide opportunity for associating with many great noble people of the past and beautiful minds of the present.

11. To develop genuine love for, appreciation of, and acquaintance with good drama.

12. To develop the abilities to think effectively, to communicate effectively, to sort values, to form judgments.

Approach

1. Pictures - pageant wagons used in Corpus Christi plays, Elizabethan theatre, modern theatre, scenes from Shakespeare's plays and plays on Broadway.

2. Story -

Drama in England began as religion; it began
at church service as pantomimes at Easter and
at Christmas, telling the story of the Resur-
rection and the Christmas story. But with the
development of drama, it began to be too secu-
lar for the church service. And as it became
more secular, there developed more interest in
amusing the audience; comedy was added.

It began to be given at other places
rather than the church, probably in the inn
yard. Then the stage open on one side de-
veloped.

At the Corpus Christi Festival, floats
came into the courtyard as a procession. The
audience was in balconies on the floors of the
inn and in the inn yard. The horses were un-
hitched, and the performance began. There were
two floors to the conveyance. The lower floor
often represented hell - the flames were rep-
resented by colored paper. The devil might
chase a character and toss him into the mouth
of hell. The devil began frolicing more and
more; he began chasing his subjects through
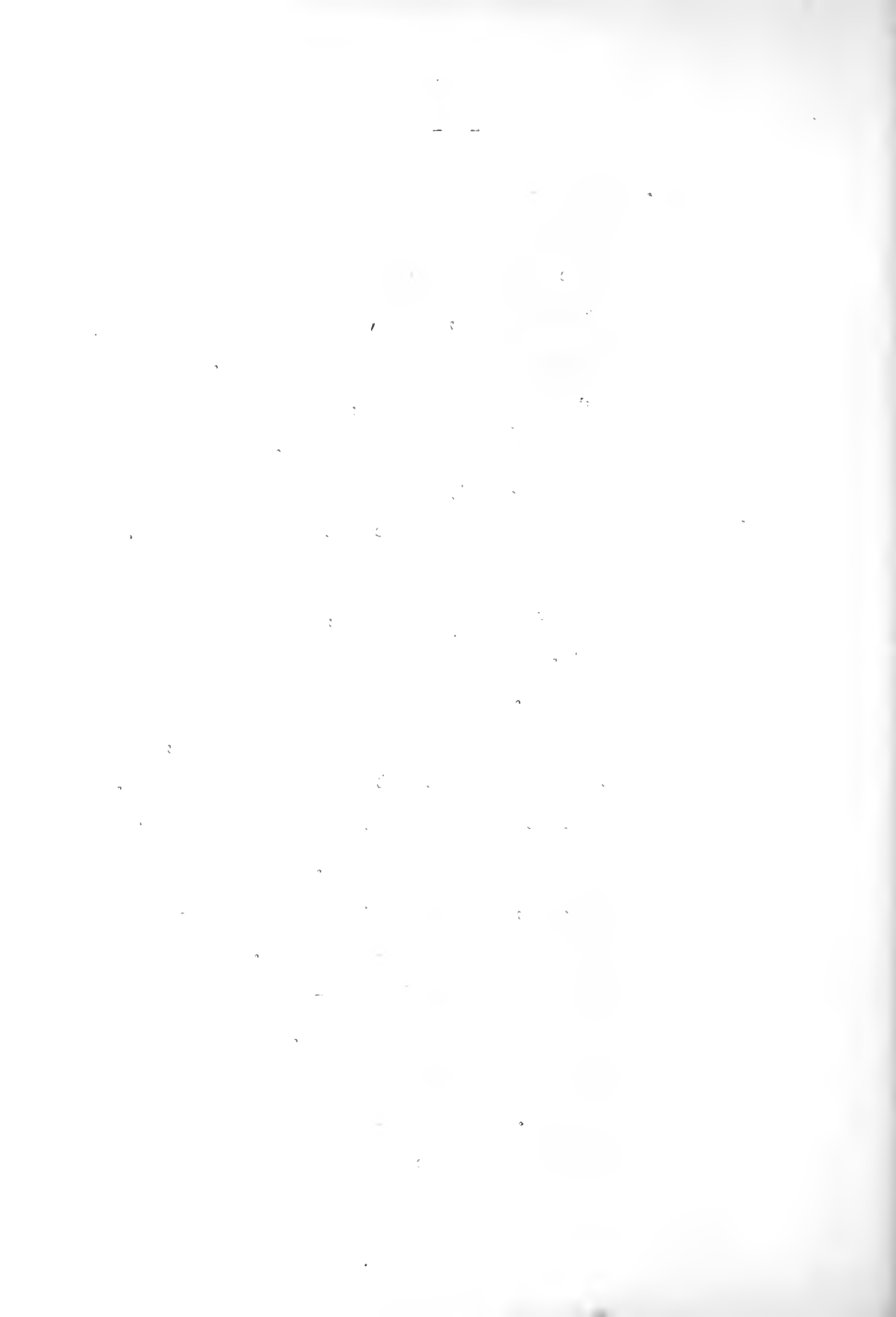
the audience. So the clown evolved from this situation.

If we go back to the first great period of drama, the Periclean Age, and view a performance at a hillside theatre in Athens, we might see a performance of The Frogs written by Aristophanes.

3. Read excerpts to class from The Frogs.

4. Read excerpts to class from Gammer Gurton's Needle, A Midsummer Night's Dream, She Stoops to Conquer, My Lady's Lace, The Eve of St. Mark.

Activities

I. Individuals and groups of individuals give characterizations from The Frogs, Gammer Gurton's Needle, She Stoops to Conquer, My Lady's Lace, A Midsummer Night's Dream, As You Like It, The Eve of St. Mark.

II. Discussion of Dramatic Ages, dramatic vocabulary, dramaturgy, and play criticism, using information in speech text.[6]

III. Panels (following each group of the following informational talks).

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6. Alice Evelyn Craig, The Speech Arts, Chapter XXVI, "Drama Appreciation," pp. 447-457. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1938.
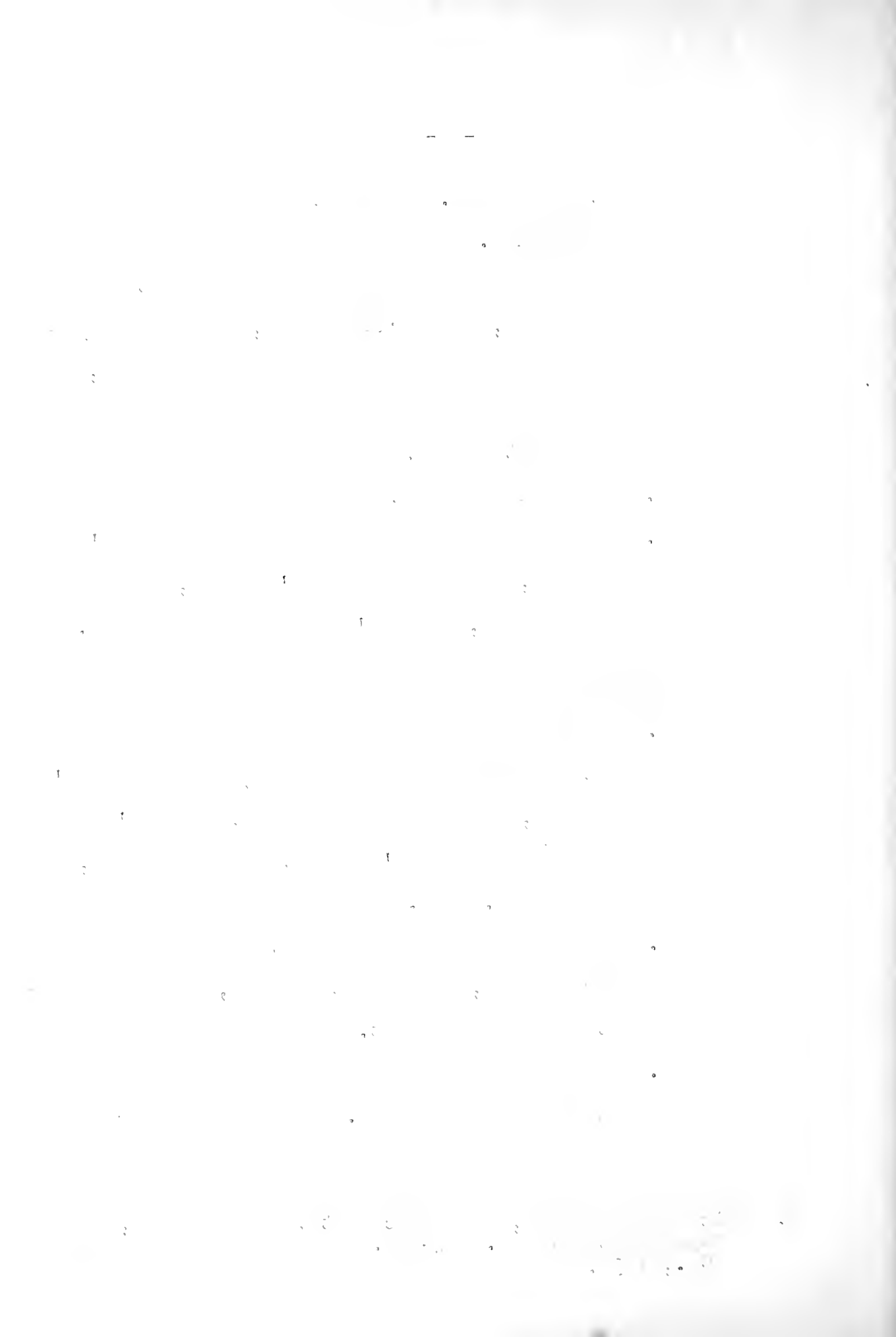
IV. Talks

    A. Drama beginnings

        1. Grecian stage

        2. Greek drama

        3. Aeschylus

        4. Sophocles

        5. Euripides

        6. Aristophanes

        7. Roman stage

        8. Roman drama

        9. Plautus

      10. Terence

    B. Drama of Middle Ages

        1. Miracle plays

        2. Mystery plays

        3. Morality plays

        4. A review of <u>Gammer Gurton's Needle</u>

    C. Development of English Drama

        1. Pre-Tudor Drama - Corpus Christi Plays

        2. Tudor Drama

        3. Elizabethan Drama

            (a) The Theatre

            (b) Comedy

            (c) Tragedy

            (d) Marlowe

F. The World's Great Actors and Actresses

    1. Richard Burbage

    2. John Drew

    3. David Garrick

    4. Charles John Kean

    5. Richard Mansfield

    6. Lionel L. Barrymore

    7. Ethel Barrymore

    8. Katherine Cornell

    9. Helen Hayes

    10. Julia Marlowe

G. Modern Movements in the Drama

    1. Children's Theatres

    2. Community Playhouses

    3. Drama Festivals

    4. Little Theatre

    5. Mechanics of the Modern Stage

V. Films

A. Romeo and Juliet

B. Macbeth

C. Julius Caesar (any others that might be available)

VI. Individual and group projects

A. A choice of two of the following:

        1.   Dramatization of scenes from well-known

             pieces of literature

        2.   Play review

        3.   Characterizations

        4.   Miniature stage and furniture

    B. Scrap books - a choice

        1.   News and scenes from Broadway

        2.   Illustrations of scenes from Shakespeare

        3.   Drawings

            (a) Theatres

            (b) Authors

            (c) Scenes

    C. Discussions[7]

        1.   Choosing Play and Players

        2.   Stage and Scenery

        3.   Stage Directions and Acting

        4.   Play: Rehearsals and Performance

    D. Note Books

        1.   Notes on all talks

        2.   Outline of information from speech text[8]

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7. Alice Evelyn Craig, *The Speech Arts*, Chapters XXVII; XXVIII;
     XXIX; XXX; pp. 458-482.

8. *Ibid.*, pp. 447-457.

E. Attending a College or Little Theatre
   Performance

F. Writing a critique of the performance
   attended, using outline in speech text[9]

G. Characterizations from note-worthy plays -
   suggestions: scenes from

    1. <u>Macbeth</u>

    2. <u>Midsummer Night's Dream</u>

    3. <u>The Comedy of Errors</u>

    4. <u>As You Like It</u>

    5. <u>The Blue Bird</u>

    6. <u>Dr. Faustus</u>

    7. <u>The Barretts of Wimpole Street</u>

    8. <u>Cavalcade</u>

    9. <u>She Stoops to Conquer</u>

   10. <u>My Lady's Lace</u>

   11. <u>St. Joan</u>

   12. <u>Riders to the Sea</u>

   13. <u>What Every Woman Knows</u>

   14. <u>Victoria Regina</u>

   15. <u>The Eve of St. Mark</u>

   16. Dramatizations from

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9. <u>Ibid</u>., pp. 455-456.
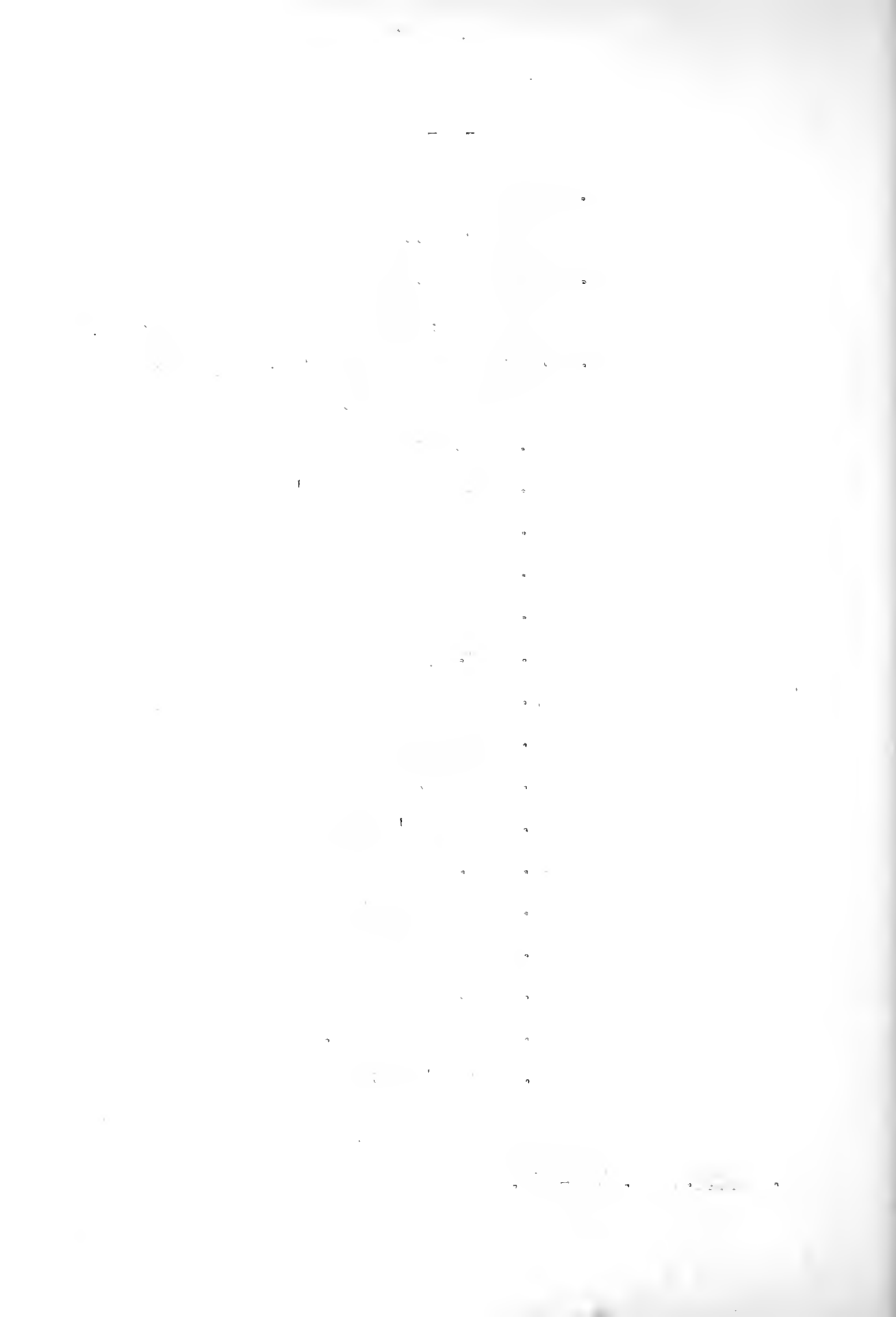
> _Pride_ and _Prejudice_, _Silas_ _Marner_, _The_
> _Gold_ _Bug_, _Tom_ _Sawyer_, _Treasure_ _Island_

Evaluation

I. Culminating activities

   A. Exhibition of note books, scrap books, models

   B. A program consisting of some of the best contributions

   C. Program: _Little_ _Plays_ _from_ _Big_ _Authors_[10]

   D. Talks - each individual working out his talk with sincerity in his own way, using the following in working out main headings:

Benefits and Results

      1. Abilities developed

      2. Faculties cultivated

      3. Habits formed

      4. Qualities unfolded

II. Study of anecdotal records on each individual's progress

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10. Wetmore Declamation Bureau, Sioux City 20, Iowa, publishes a book of plays by Provence each year which contains what the title indicates.
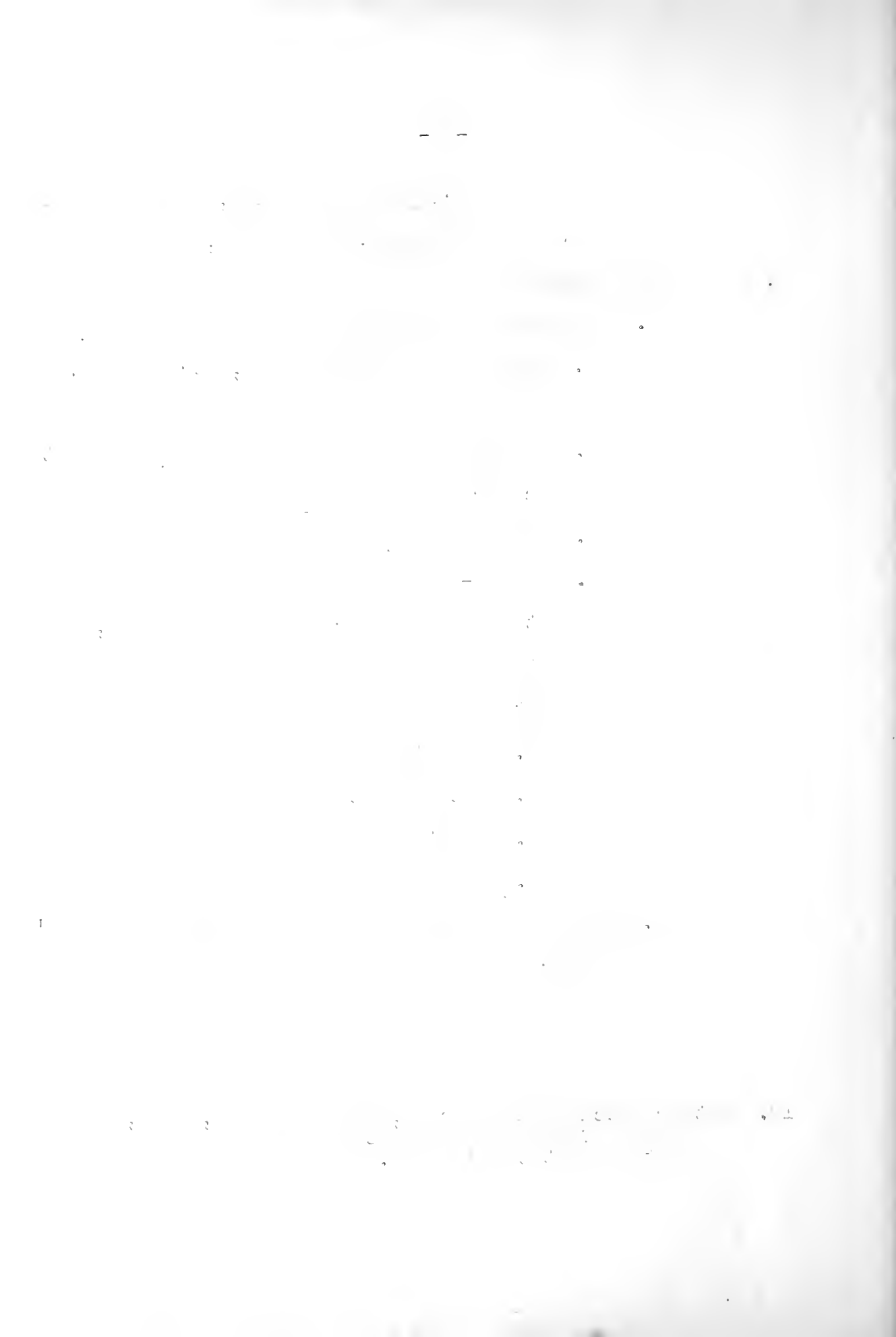
AN OBSERVATION

<u>Autocratic</u> <u>and</u> <u>democratic</u> <u>control</u>. In observing
two hundred seventy-five secondary seniors over a period of
seven years, 1941-1947, the specific thing looked for was
the effects of autocratic and democratic classroom control.
This observation was made in the same school in which the
preceding experiments were performed.

Morale is revealed in speech, in the written word,
and in specific acts.[11] Definite acts and definite comments
were recorded. Total duration of the particular conduct and
the number of repetitions of similar comments were noted.

In observing from day to day, answers to the follow-
ing questions were obtained:

Did they have confidence in leaders?

Did they reveal self-confidence -

Did they feel valued and appreciated?

Did they feel that they were honored participants
in worthy endeavors?

Were they pleasant and cheerful?

Were they cooperative -

Were they interested in the welfare of the group?

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11. American Association of School Administrators, <u>Morale</u> <u>for</u>
<u>a</u> <u>Free</u> <u>World</u>, <u>Twenty-second</u> <u>Yearbook</u>, 1944, p. 284.

Could they find their own welfare represented

in the welfare of the group?

Were they appreciative?

Was there spontaneous activity?

Was there dissatisfaction -

Was there bickering?

Was there rebellion?

Was there resentment?

Was there cynicism?

Did they feel that they were able to do something

about situations?

Did they respect the school?

Did they have fun?

By repeating the study through the years, the procedure was checked for validity.

STATISTICAL ELEMENTS

College freshmen. Questionnaires were sent to twenty-one colleges located in eighteen states of the United States. The purpose was for determining the extent to which the secondary school is providing for the morale of college-bound youth. The degree to which college freshmen in 1947-1948 were able to achieve social and academic success is indicative of their preparedness for that step of their educational careers. These questions required definite objective

answers, thereby assuring validity.

Armed Forces. Data on those serving in the Armed Forces between 1941 and 1946 was sought as a means of determining the extent to which young people representing the entire population are able to adjust. This particular data was concerned with the number who had extreme difficulty in adjusting and the number who were unable to adjust even with help in comparison with the total number serving.

Case study review. A review of a survey of the delinquency problem made by Victor Cohn during 1947 for the Miami Herald and Minneapolis Tribune was for determining:

1. The extent of maladjustment
2. The causes of maladjustment
3. The preventative measures that can be utilized.

Summary. It has been indicated that an experiment with an elementary group was for determining the cause of the group's status and the effectiveness of a technique, absence of competition in a democratic setting. This was both causal-comparative and experimental.

A secondary experiment designed for one of the same purposes, determining the effectiveness of a technique, has been offered. This experiment providing for individual and group activities based on the special interests of the

group was afforded variety through different phases of the speech arts. Repetition through the years assured validity.

An observation for ascertaining the effects of autocratic and democratic classroom control has been cited.

It has been noted that statistical factors have been sought for determining the extent of maladjustment existent among college freshmen and the Armed Forces, its extent in general, and its causes.

It has been inferred that these data could be used in measuring the extent to which the present curriculum is providing for the morale of youth and the extent to which it is possible for it to make this provision.

CHAPTER IV

VALUES DERIVED

The treatment of these data through description, explanation, and comparison is quantitative and qualitative. Results are obtained by raising the factors to their chief significance.

EXPERIMENTS

Elementary experiment. "By their fruits ye shall know them," repeats the American Association of School Administrators.[1] The "learner's pyramid" with which the Association illustrates the three levels of learning - Facts,- Thought,- Attitudes - culminates in Action at the top. Information, interpretation, and attitudes are thereby pointed out as the essentials in the learning process. They are demonstrated in conduct. Ideas must become ideals.

Factual material is only a means to an end says Ross.[2] Fundamental attitudes are fashioned and fixed during the plastic years the American Association of School Administrators infers.[3] The comments made by the Educational

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1. American Association of School Administrators, Morale for a Free World, Twenty-second Yearbook, 1944, pp. 206-207.

2. C. C. Ross, Measurement in Today's Schools, p. 107.

3. American Association of School Administrators, op. cit., p. 43.
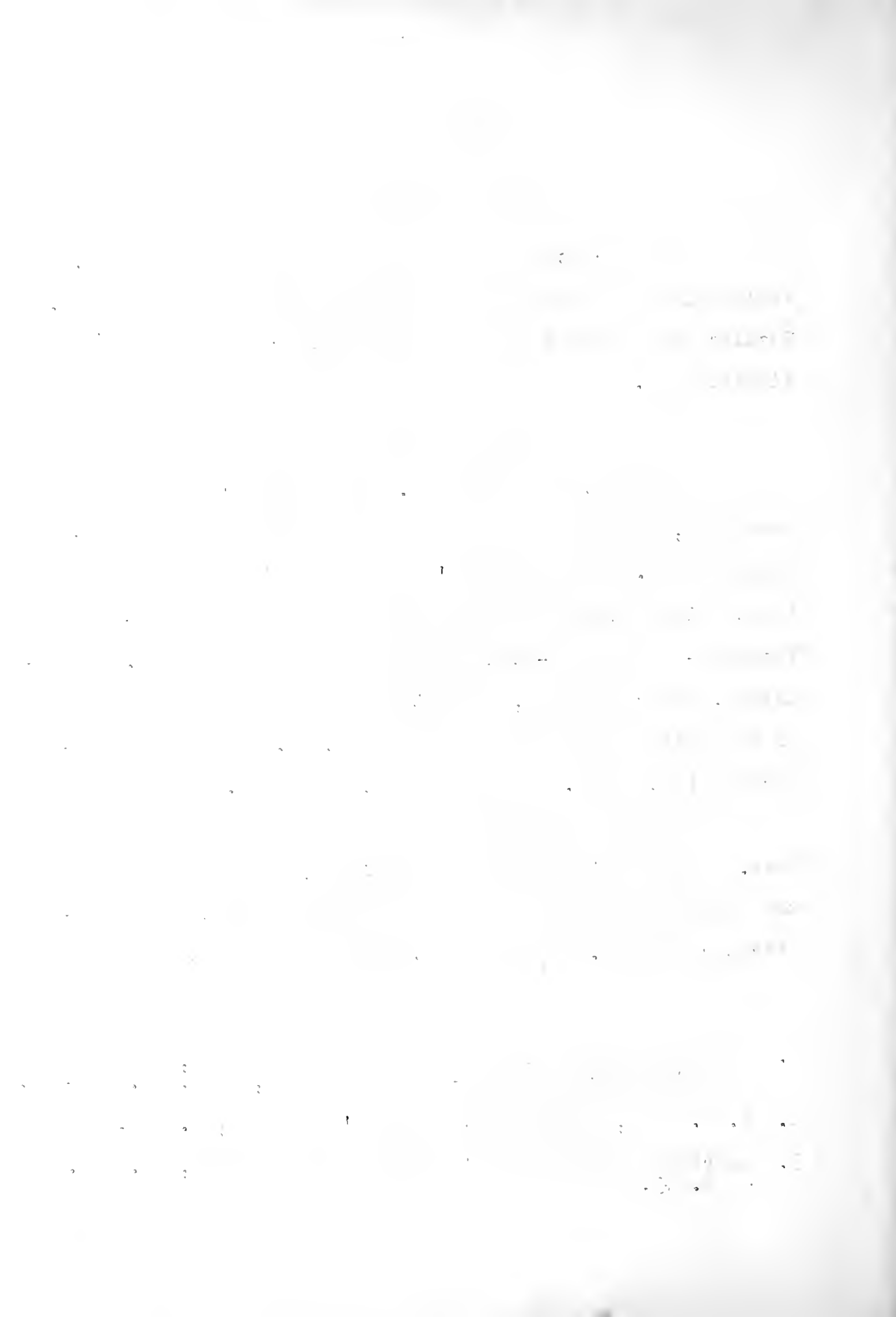
Policies Commission in relation to morale refer to the entire
range of organized education.[4] But many of these goals of
education embracing in general the social characteristics of
individuals cannot be indexed by the ordinary methods of ob-
jective testing states Good, Barr, and Scates.[5] Therefore
direct observation has become an important means of teachers
who are interested in certain outcomes in addition to academ-
ic ones. A reliable procedure these authors continue is to
look for definite acts which are regarded as evidence of the
attainment of certain objectives. The frequency with which
these significant acts have occurred is an index of the ex-
tent to which certain habits have become established. Groups
exhibiting these significant acts with greater or less fre-
quency show more or less evidence of having grown in the
right direction.

This criterion was used as one means of arriving at
results in this experiment. Other criteria used were objec-
tive measurement through tests and direct outcomes evidenced
in the quality of their work and their ability to produce -
command of fundamentals, all written work, use of library,

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4. Educational Policies Commission, Education and the Morale
     of a Free People, (November, 1941), pp. 5-6.

5. Carter V. Good, A. S. Barr, Douglas E. Scates, The
     Methodology of Educational Research, p. 395.
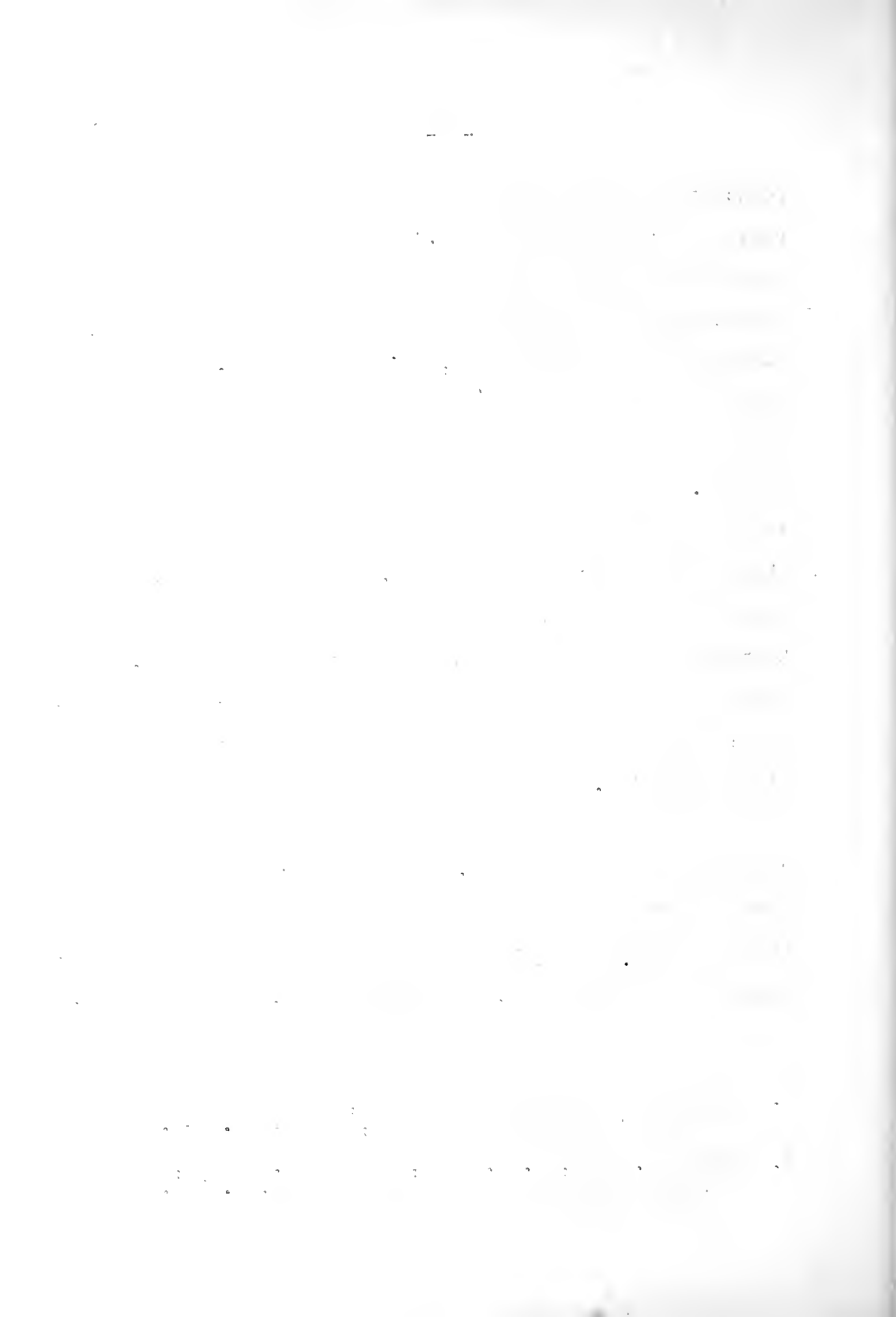
creative achievements: choral readings, dramatizations, friezes, music.

The percentages of these children who reached the established goals, who excelled the established goals, and who were below the established goals in the language arts and in arithmetic are shown in Table I. This progress, when compared with the beginning status of the group which showed that, although placed in the fourth grade, even the best of them had only attained a second grade reading level and that other shortcomings were equal or worse, is definitely illuminating. The children had ability, and the method of procedure had worth.

Individual graphs showed the average number of library books read to be fifty-five. The highest number read by any individual was eighty-seven. These children loved everything - poetry, music, art, numbers, reading, writing. They browsed among books. They used Junior Britannica and the dictionary of their own volition. They budgeted their allowances using a portion to buy books. As a means of evaluation, Hughes considers the degree to which the members of the group enjoy what is undertaken and to which they co-operate a valid criterion.[6] From individual rating scales

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6. R. O. Hughes, "Inschool Civic Activities," Journal of N.E.A., 37 (May, 1948), p. 293.
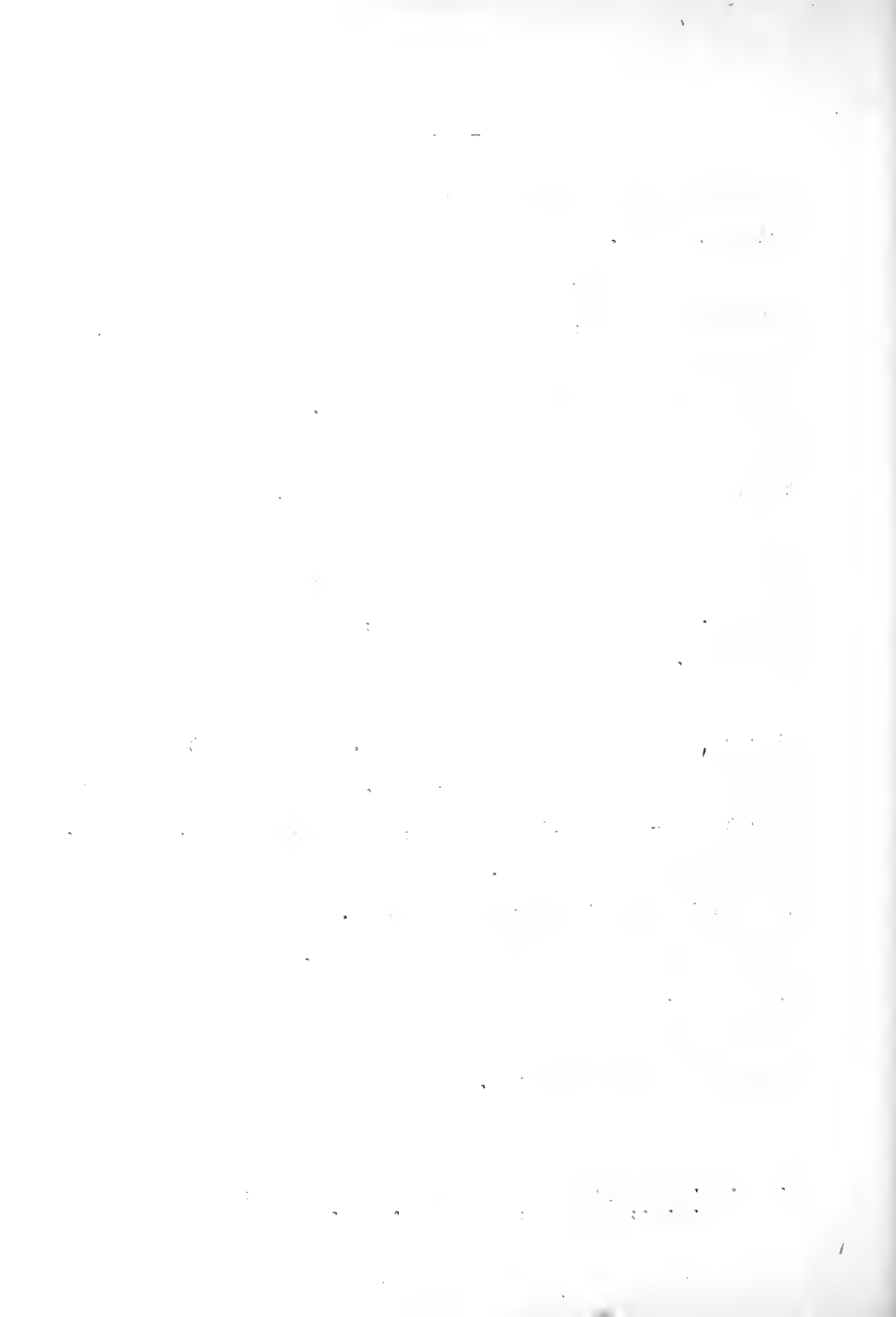
TABLE I

Outcomes in Relation to Goals

	Reading	Arithmetic Fundamentals	Problems	Spelling
Excelling Goals	42%	39%	41%	50%
Reaching Goals	32%	45%	52%	24%
Below Goals	26%	16%	7%	26%

	Handwriting	Oral Expression	Written Expression
Outstanding Progress	26%	50%	24%
Satisfactory Progress	62%	23%	15%
Unsatisfactory Progress	42%	26%	32%

upon which had been recorded degrees of enjoyment and co-
operation, a group value was derived. This is shown in
Figure 3. With only 10 per cent making unsatisfactory pro-
gress and with 22 per cent making outstanding progress, the
value is evident.

Individual rating scales showing details of growth
in healthful living, social living, and the arts were indica-
tive of successful progress and combined into a group progress
that was unusual. The factors considered are shown in the
appendix.[7] Follow-up results indicated on the same rating
scale are given in Table II. The teachers making the re-
cordings in the follow-up results had not known about the
experiment, nor had they had any previous interest in the
children. Table III shows the results of progress in school
subjects.

Follow-up results pertaining to the other fourth
grade section, the uncontrolled group with which the con-
trolled group was compared, are shown in Tables II and III.
Such results indicate unmistakably the worth of the technique.
When an average of 22½ per cent of the controlled group achieve
outstandingly in developing habits, attitudes, and appreciation
while only 5 per cent of the uncontrolled group show such

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7. Appendix, p. 139.
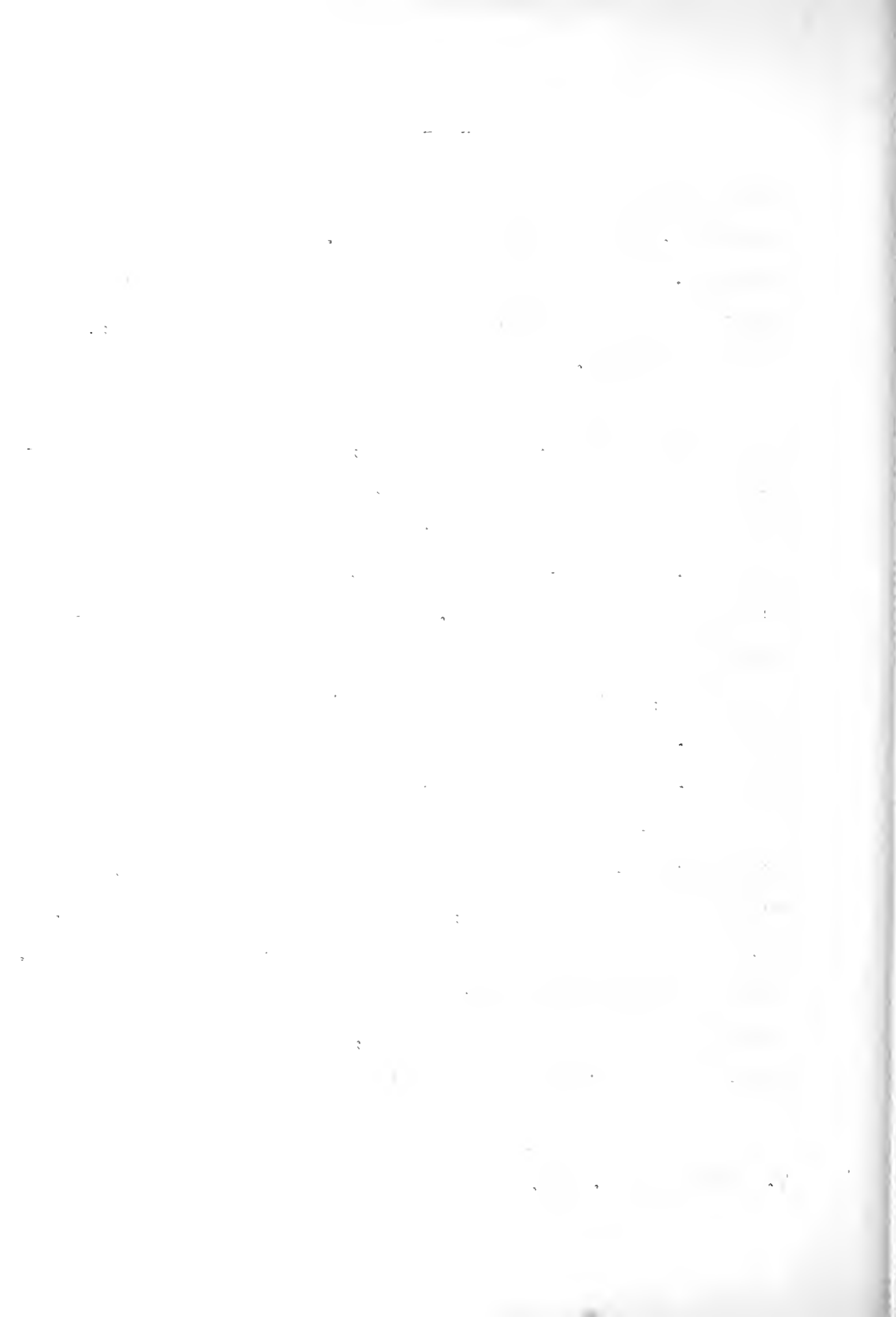
TABLE II

Class Results - Habits, Attitudes, Appreciation

Controlled Group

	Growth in Healthful Living	Growth in Social Living	Growth in Work Habits	Growth in the Arts
Outstanding Progress	17%	33%	24%	16%
Unsatisfactory Progress	2%	12%	24%	0

Uncontrolled Group

Outstanding Progress	5%	5%	5%	5%
Unsatisfactory Progress	7%	38%	38%	7%

TABLE III

Class Results - School Subjects

Controlled Group

	Language Arts	Arithmetic	Social Studies	Science
Outstanding Progress	28%	12%	14%	19%
Above Average	14%	31%	11%	14%
Below Average	19%	9%	19%	14%
Failure	2%	5%	5%	0

Uncontrolled Group

	Language Arts	Arithmetic	Social Studies	Science
Outstanding Progress	0	2%	2%	2%
Above Average	10%	12%	5%	2%
Below Average	33%	28%	38%	38%
Failure	33%	14%	14%	14%

Outstanding Progress   Satisfactory Progress   Unsatisfactory Progress

1   2   3   4   5   6   7
|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|
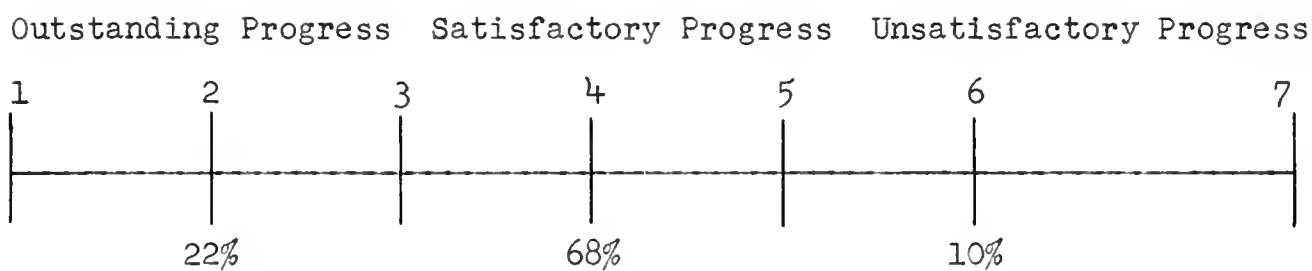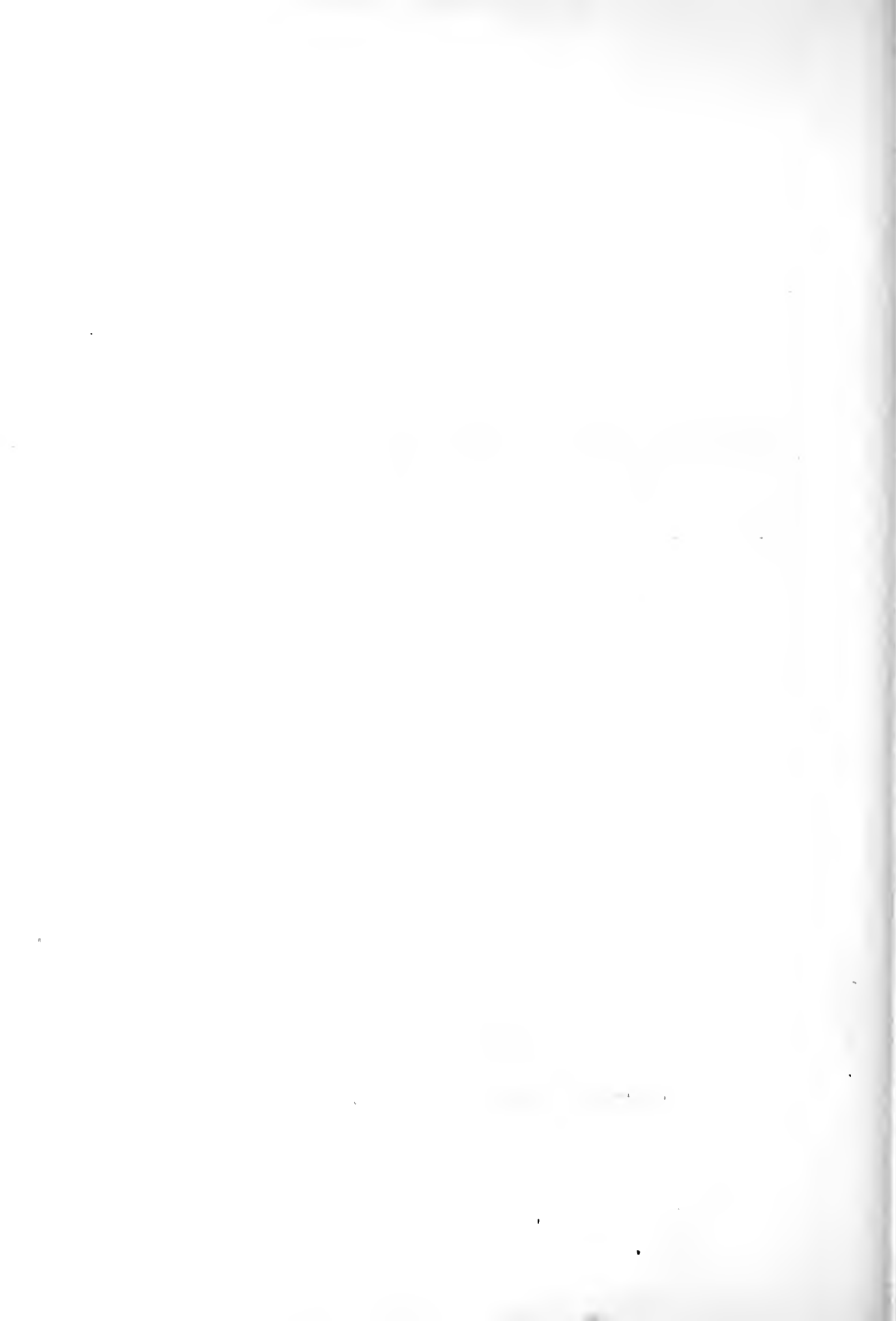   22%   68%   10%

FIGURE 3

RATING SCALE

Degrees of enjoyment and cooperation

achievement, the value of the controlled element is tested and proved. This is demonstrated more forcefully and un-questionably objectively in school subjects with a ratio of an 18¼ per cent average to 1½ per cent.

Both groups were unselected. No I.Q.'s were de-termined. However, according to Terman[8] one per cent of any unselected group will have I.Q.'s of 130 or better and another one per cent will have I.Q.'s of 70 or less. Five per cent will have I.Q.'s of 122 or above, and another 5 per cent will score 78 or below. A group is normally distributed. Diagnosis results at the time the experiment was begun showed the uncontrolled group to have achieved more academically than the controlled group. They were equally divided as to number enrolled in each group and as to chronological age distribution. Both groups as a whole had spent their entire school life in the same school and had had the same experiences.

The uncontrolled group, during the period of the ex-perimental process with the controlled group, proceeded in a traditional manner. Everybody attempted the same tasks in the same books. All texts used by the teacher were fourth grade level. However, they had supplies in the room compar-ing favorably with those of the controlled group. There was

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8. Lewis M. Terman, The Measurement of Intelligence, p. 79 as quoted by Arch O. Heck, The Education of Exceptional Children, pp. 3-4.

the traditional competition with little provision for individual needs. There were no civic responsibilities; there was no cooperative planning. There was little variation in procedure. There was punishment for failure to prepare lessons and for socially unaccepted behavior. Nevertheless, the teacher worked unceasingly and sincerely.

The results of the two techniques are comparable from the tables.

Thus values derived from this experimental procedure - both quantitative and qualitative - are conclusive evidence that the controlled factor during the period of inquiry produced the results. Results obtained in both the controlled group and the uncontrolled group demonstrated that the antecedent of the previous status of the groups was plain neglect, a case of mental starvation. There had been no directive force; instead there had been only random procedure. Causal-comparison further established the effectiveness of the controlled factor, absence of competition in a democratic setting. In the absence of that factor, the uncontrolled group made less progress than the controlled group thereby establishing the superiority of the technique in comparison with an autocratic, competitive procedure. The enhancing attributes of the technique itself could not be called selective factors since they are a part of the whole.
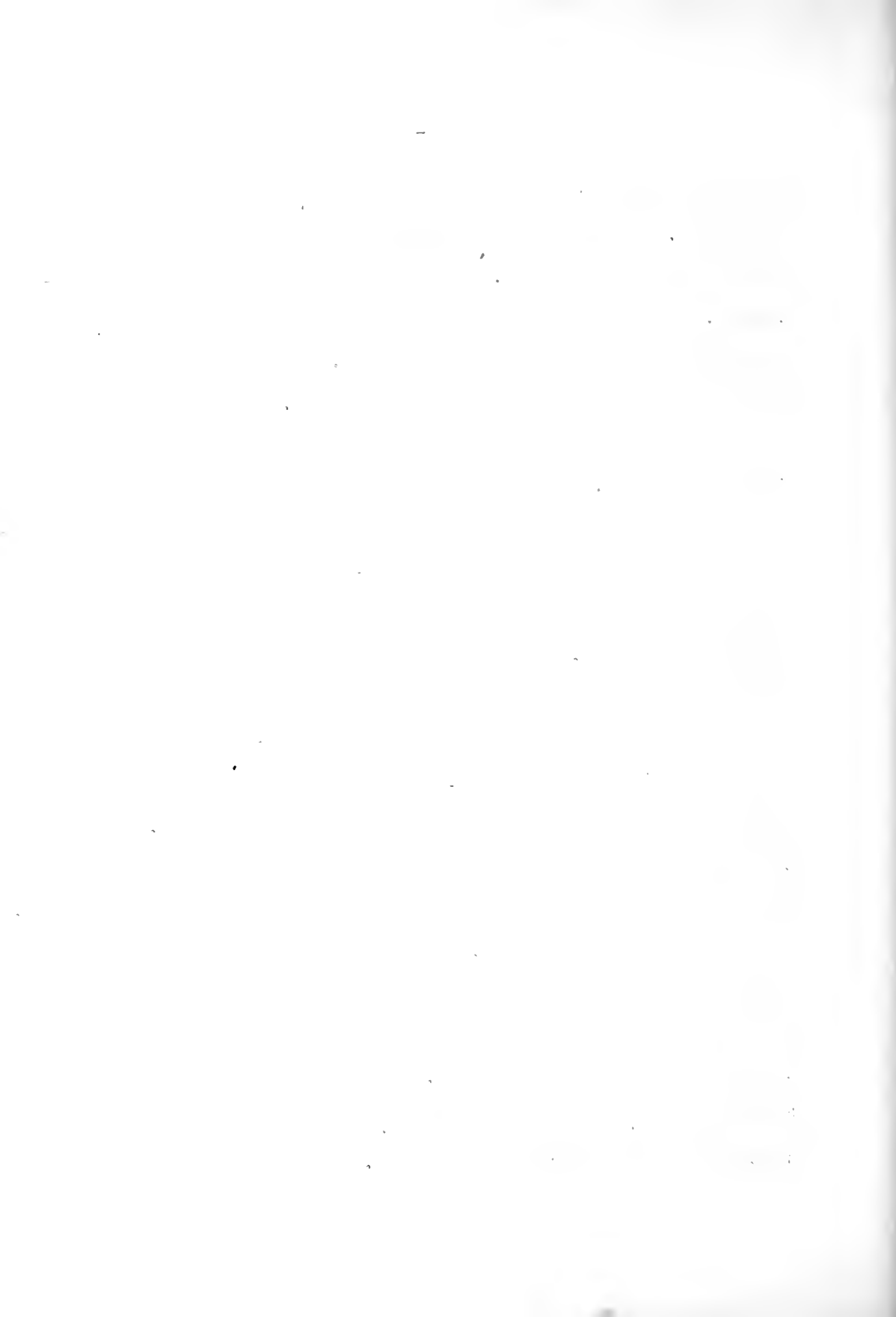
Secondary experiment. Again as in the experiment with the elementary group, the repetition by the American Association of School Administrators,[9] "By their fruits ye shall know them," applies most appropriately. By repeating the experiment each year from 1941 to 1947 and obtaining similar results, there was valid evidence as to the excellence of the controlled factor, absence of competition in a democratic setting. The subject, speech, offered abundant opportunity.

The written word, the spoken word, and behavior reveal morale. Through these devices definite results were obtained from recordings made in anecdotal notes and on individual records. These recordings gave self-confidence a superior lead over any detrimental instances. From these indices these students were found to be cooperative, appreciative, successful. There were sincerely no failures.

A typical undertaking involving several phases of the speech arts was given in Chapter III. Outstanding culminating efforts were revealed in play productions. From the types of activities chosen and from the quality of the performances, evaluations were made. Facsimiles of program

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9. American Association of School Administrators, Morale for a Free World, Twenty-second Yearbook, 1944, pp. 206-207.

covers from dramatic productions are shown in the Appendix.[10]
Through displayed interest and through evidenced achievements,
the school became a member of the National Thespian Honor
Dramatic Society for high schools.

The subject itself cannot be considered a selective
factor in this experiment since any subject could be organiz-
ed along similar lines although the subject does offer much
opportunity.

The majority of the young men from those classes
served in the Armed Forces. The majority of the girls went
to work. A few went to college. Numbers of these young people
have visited the school since their graduation. Each has said
that speech had been of more value to them than any other sub-
ject. Ninety-seven letters have been received in which there
were statements similar to the following quotation: "When you
can take what you have learned in a class and put it to prac-
tical use, you can realize what education means to you. What
I learned in speech has benefited me more than all other
things. That was an ideal experience."

These criteria demonstrate convincingly the elevating
influence of democratic practices on mental security and con-
fidence in associates.

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10. Appendix, pp. 140-144.

AN OBSERVATION

Autocratic and democratic control. The validity of
this observation was assured by repeating the procedure through
the years between 1941 and 1947. The subjects were high school
seniors. The specific thing looked for was the results of
autocratic and democratic classroom control.

Observed factors were recorded on a check list. The
length of the duration of particular behavior and the number
of repetitions of similar remarks were recorded. A sample
check list was given in Chapter III.

During these years the types of control - autocratic
and democratic - alternated. These records showed results as
follows:

Autocratic control -

Loss of confidence in leaders

Loss of self-confidence

Dissatisfaction

Loss of respect for the school

Democratic control -

Self-confidence

Cooperativeness

Cheerfulness

Spontaneous activity

Confidence in leaders

Results from experiments with autocratic and democratic control by eminent educators attach importance to the value of this observation.

Kirkpatrick[11] in a recent survey for determining the attitudes of the German people found that lack of confidence in leaders increased with bombing severity. Along with this was a progressive decline in morale of which loss of confidence in leaders could be a component.

From these results can be seen the detrimental effects of autocratic control.

Experiment and observation illustrate conclusively the superiority of the democratic process in fixing skills, in imparting information, and in establishing behavior.

STATISTICS

Status of college freshmen. The colleges for the most part expressed a willingness to cooperate, but they do not have reliable figures on the number who reveal social maladjustments. They have used aptitude, ability, and placement tests for only a small percentage of their students, and very few have conducted group testing for emotional adjustment. One large college was able to furnish accurate figures.

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11. Clifford Kirkpatrick, "Reactions of Educated Germans to Defeat," The American Journal of Sociology, LIV (July, 1948), pp. 36-47.

These showed that 15 per cent of the freshmen in that insti-
tution revealed social maladjustments. A small woman's
college showed a figure of 6 per cent. Another large col-
lege whose enrollment represents forty-one foreign countries
and every state in the United States except one expects to
conduct a testing program this fall but is unable to furnish
the desired information now. This college expressed an inter-
est in the study and offered the uses of its name in the
undertaking. Only one college expressed any skepticism
concerning the questions asked. This could be due to the
fact that a school itself can push pupils into maladjustment.
However, the whole purpose was, as stated, to determine the
extent to which the secondary school is preparing its
college-bound youth to succeed. Reliable data derived from
answers to the inquiries on the questionnaire sent[12] could
be most revealing. The expressed interest and willingness
of these representative colleges to cooperate will make it
possible to arrive at more definiteness on this particular
point within a year. In the meantime these available per-
centages furnish an estimate that lends significance.

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12. Appendix, p. 138.

Status of Armed Forces. The number of men and
women who served in the Armed Forces between July 1, 1940,
and June 30, 1946, were furnished. However, data on mal-
adjustments had not been compiled because of limited person-
nel and budgetary restrictions. Such data could be very
valuable in ascertaining the degree to which representatives
from the entire population are able to adjust. Mental
illness since the war demonstrates much positive frustration
of long standing.

Case study review. A review of a survey of the
delinquency problem by Victor Cohn during 1947 for the Miami
Herald and Minneapolis Tribune showed that from facts, safe
predictions could be made that there would be 800 murders
within the next 12 months. Many of the murders would be teen-
agers, some mere children. About 60 would be fifteen or less.
He found that disorganized life produces killers - school
difficulties, physical factors, family rivalry, aggressiveness
in parents. In general the faults seem to lie with society
and particularly with family misery. Everyone is at war
with himself. This war wears down the emotionally unstable.
Only widespread preventative psychology can catch potential
killers. They must be found early. The things that cause
maladjustment and delinquency in the first place must be
attacked. Scientific help must be provided for ill-adapted

children. Schools need the services of good behavior clinics.
Informed teachers can be the scouts watching for the first
signs of upset. The schools can be the leaders in prevention.

Thus statistics show that although maladjustment is
widespread, other sources could throw additional light on its
extent. That it can be prevented is the belief of experts.
Again the privilege belongs to the school.

Summary. Thus experimental factors have revealed
the power of the school to develop mental security. Both
experiment and observation have demonstrated the potentiality
of the democratic process in an atmosphere where competition
with others is suppressed. That such a technique is a super-
ior means of acquiring skills, gaining information, and de-
veloping desirable attitudes has been significantly illustrated.
That democratic classroom control takes precedence over auto-
cratic control as a means of developing desirable attitudes
has been discerned. This observation has added impetus to
the value of democratic procedures.

Statistical factors, although scant in number,
have pointed to a situation that demands concern. It has
been indicated that the colleges have signified sufficient
interest to assure availability of data relative to the
percentages of maladjusted freshmen by next year. It has
been noted that, although statistics for showing the extent

of maladjustment in the Armed Forces have not been organized
as yet, mental illness since the war is indicative of a de-
cided weakness in great numbers of the population. A case
study review has shown further the prevalence of maladjustment
and has cited the feasibility of its prevention through the
leadership of education.

Maladjustment presents a problem of great concern.
Education can take the initiative in its prevention. Education
can provide mental security. It can develop desirable atti-
tudes. It can give a pattern of behavior that uses democratic
ideals. It can build morale.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

In this summary, facts crystalize. By harmonizing
data with criteria, conclusions are reached.

SUMMARY

Presenting the problem. In presenting this problem,
the extent to which the present curriculum provides for the
morale of youth, it has been indicated that there is contained
therein three sub-problems: discovering the relationship be-
tween the educational program and the factors composing morale;
evaluating procedures for effectiveness; and determining the
means of motivating the elements of morale so that they
permeate the entire being.

A definition of terms has shown what is implied by
curriculum, by educational program, and by experience. Sum-
marily morale has been clarified both generally and technical-
ly: as a factor that enables people as individuals or as
groups to live up to their highest potentialities; as a
state of mind characterized by confidence and courage; as a
characteristic of human behavior whose seat is the human will.
High and low morale have been distinguished, and the inter-
relation of individual and group morale has been indicated.

The problem has been delimited to the means by
which education can develop a moral spirit that makes people

strong in war or in peace and the feasibility of providing an educational program focused on morale.

It has been asserted that studies have revealed the inadequacies of educational offerings for meeting the needs of youth; that morale holds the key to these needs; and that in seeking morale, provision for the inadequacies will be made.

A synoptic history of the word "morale" has analyzed it psychologically, physiologically, philosophically, ethically, religiously. It has indicated that the concept is associated with voluntary behavior symbolic of feeling.

Totalitarian educational procedures for producing a sort of morale suited to their own undemocratic creed have been contrasted with democratic procedures. Totalitarian procedures are based on deception that causes a loss of individuality. Democratic procedures are based on truth and on regard for humanity that develop in people the ability to live up to their highest capabilities.

In establishing the need for this study, the situation has been reviewed and specific shortcomings have been cited. Although the majority of youth have been prepared to live in a difficult world and have been willing to pay the supreme price to preserve freedom, justified criticisms and specific facts disclose definite shortcomings that

reveal the necessity of a secondary curricular revision.
The schools have been turning out vast numbers of individuals who were unable to meet their problems.

It has been noted that research has shown our educational program to be inadequate in fixing skills, in imparting information, and in establishing desired behavior. It has been inferred that the public has observed the failure of the school to teach spiritual values, responsibilities of personal and family life, essentials of economic and political life, and prevention of material and human waste in wars. Youth's own accusation has been cited.

Thus these curriculum shortages, however difficult to ascertain, require serious consideration.

Specifically it has been pointed out that there is a high rate of illiteracy and of mental and physical disability; that the average adult education today is about nine grades; that 931 out of each thousand who start in the fifth grade drop out along the way; that half of those who enroll as freshmen in both high school and college never graduate; that most cases of truancy can be traced to the school; that an estimate shows 9,000,000 maladjusted children today; that in 1938 there were 10,000,000 children for whom there was no leisure time provision; that delinquency is the basis of most criminal behavior; that age 17 predominates in

the role of crime; that scant attention has been given to the
problem of minority groups; that present trends in divorce,
if continued, will result in one divorce to each two marriages
by 1965.

It has been maintained that the school can provide
for these inadequacies in a redirected program - a program
that is challenging - a program that prevents maladjustment;
a program that counteracts harmful effects of causal factors
originating outside of school; a program that provides for
individual abilities; a program that provides for leisure
time; a program that develops desirable attitudes; a program
that teaches the meaning of family life and its implications
for building character and personality; finally, a program
that teaches democracy, cited by Leonard as the greatest of
the present shortcomings and perceived by the American
Association of School Administrators as the essence of
morale building.

Therein lies education's most serious neglect -
teaching the democratic process.

Upon this crucial point rests the whole task.

Review of literature. Literature has indicated
the requirements of morale, the relationship of morale to
democracy, and the means of meeting the needs of youth. It
has demonstrated that these needs can be met through the

provision of a curriculum converging on morale building. It
has shown the relation of morale to motivation, the underlying
conditions affecting morale, and the contributions education
can make to the elements of morale. It has noted the con-
nection between morale and democracy and has given the pat-
terns of present democratic practices, an analysis of democratic
method, a clarification of attitudes, and the importance of
atmosphere. It has presented a challenge, provided the basis
of a school program, and offered a procedure for economic
organization.

In considering the requirements of morale, it has
been revealed that morale is distinctively related to motiva-
tion as a characteristic of human behavior. The technic of
morale is dependent upon controlling the conditions that
affect motivation. As an important determinant of morale,
it has been noted that motivation may be externally initiated
but that it functions internally always.

The underlying conditions affecting morale have
been grouped by the American Association of School Adminis-
trators into three categories comprised of physical, mental,
and ideational factors. The Educational Policies Commission
has made five divisions - health, economic security, psycho-
logical security, confidence in associates, and loyalty to a
common purpose. The two groups are synonymous, and in either

nomenclature there is a fusion of all of the separate elements
into a whole. The resulting integration has qualities not
found in any one of the separate elements.

It has been maintained that the school can contri-
bute to each element of morale both through its own program
and through other educational agencies. The means whereby
the school can make these contributions have been offered -
a program of health; a program giving attention to individual
interests, abilities, and immediate and future needs; a
program with a common purpose. A health program would be
preventative and remedial and would build attitudes and
habits toward better health. A program with attention to
individual interests, abilities, and immediate and future
needs would contribute not only to both economic and psycho-
logical security but would serve also to develop confidence
in others through sharing and cooperating in worthwhile
efforts. These democratic practices, accompanied by intel-
lectual and emotional experiences, and further democratic
participation deriving from factual information, organized
class studies, clubs, student council, discussion, pageantry,
ritual, music would constitute the program with a common
purpose. Such procedures enveloped in an atmosphere con-
ducive to growth would build desirable attitudes and fuse
into a oneness with harmonious human relations toward a

resultant called morale.

It has been noted that new educational goals that point toward understanding and cooperation are a challenge to the best minds in the profession to build morale in the schools of all America.

That teaching the meaning of democracy, the first and greatest goal of secondary education and the essence of morale building, is one of the greatest present inadequacies has been cited. Varied attempts to live the democratic way of life in schools exist, but in the vast majority, teaching the democratic processes is incomplete, unorganized, and thinly spread.

It has been noted that three problems - purpose, procedure, and personnel - are connected with democratic efficiency. Individual welfare must be represented in the group's purposes if group action is to be efficient. Procedures and purposes must be consistent. Participation in democratic processes is imperative to teaching the processes, yet dependent upon maturity and previous experiences.

In meeting the needs of youth, it has been shown that an improved program of instruction would prepare youth for occupational life, provide for his health, and equip him for citizenship. It has been maintained that our social and economic system can provide economic security through a

systematic and scientific approach without destroying personal initiative and the spirit of adventure. With this provision and the school's contributions, education is invested with directive force toward building morale. In seeking morale, provision for the present educational shortcomings will be made. This is the privilege of the school.

Experimental and statistical factors. An experiment carried on with a group of elementary children has shown the status of the group and has described the employment of a technique, absence of competition in a democratic setting. In seeking the cause of the status of the group and in comparing them with another group, the performance was causal-comparative. It was experimental within the group, the specifically controlled element being the technique employed.

It has been noted that their status was determined through diagnosis, observation, and records. The status of affairs was apparent in the particularly dilapidated school room and in the children's deficiencies. Although they had been placed in the fourth grade, the highest reading level was second grade. Some had not reached the reading readiness stage. Other conditions, including the meager, inaccurate records, paralleled the reading levels. Similar conditions existed in other groups within the school.

It has been indicated that individualization

accompanied the democratic procedures in striving toward the
general and specific aims that were set up. (Figures 1 and 2)
The relation of this experiment to morale was its influence
on mental security.

It has been cited that an experiment conducted
with a secondary group had a purpose identical to that of
the elementary group. Effective communication, the purpose
of all speech, (the course being taught) remained unchanged
as a general objective of the class. Through cooperative
planning, special interests of the group were considered,
and means were devised for progressing toward specific aims.

That anecdotal records, individual evaluation re-
cords, and culminating outcomes were used as means of
measuring success has been noted and a typical undertaking
has been outlined. This example has illustrated a unit of
work employing various phases of the speech arts and has
offered specific means of evaluation that have shown pro-
vision both for individual achievement and for genuine
participation in a significant endeavor with the group.

An observation for determining the effects of
autocratic and democratic classroom control was checked for
validity through repetition, it has been noted. Records of
acts and comments gave answers to definite questions bearing
on morale - confidence in leaders, self-confidence, cooperation,

appreciation, spontaneous activity, dissatisfaction, respect for school.

It has been designated that statistical elements have been sought for determining the degree to which the secondary school is providing for the morale of college freshmen and for people representing the entire population. Maladjustment is indicative of low morale.

It has been noted that a case study review was made for determining the extent and causes of maladjustment and for citing preventative measures.

Thus these data have been gathered that the value of the democratic process for imparting information, fixing skills, and developing attitudes might be ascertained; that the extent to which morale is being built might be known; that the extent to which it could be built might be determined; that the underlying causes of failure to build it might be revealed.

Values derived. Experiments have shown the high values that accrue from democratic procedures. Criteria have revealed significantly the superiority of a technique, absence of competition in a democratic setting. This has been demonstrated in skills, habits, attitudes, and appreciation.

An elementary experiment revealed the cause of the group's status, it has been noted. Their achievement compared

with that of an uncontrolled group tested the value of the
controlled element. Compared with their beginning status,
the value of the technique was made evident. Quantitative
and qualitative results have demonstrated the supreme
superiority of democratic procedures over traditional auto-
cratic procedures and have illustrated that the beginning
status of both groups was due to unforgivable neglect and
pure incompetence.

The results of experiments with secondary groups
were made both valid and reliable through repetition, it
has been indicated. Progress by these groups was directly
discernable. There were no failures. Culminating outcomes
were indicative of the achievement. The excellence of the
controlled factor was reliably evident. Anecdotal records,
types of activities, and the quality of performance furnished
data for evaluation. The dramatic presentations by these
groups gained for the school acceptance as a member of the
National Thespian Society.

An observation has indicated the outcomes of demo-
cratic and autocratic classroom control, further demonstrating
the superiority of democratic practices. Democratic control
results in desired gains while autocratic control brings
losses only - losses to the individual, to the group, to
the school.

It has been cited that sufficient statistics for accurately determining the extent of maladjustment among college freshmen are not available. Neither have these been completed for the Armed Forces because of budgetary restrictions and limited personnel. Nevertheless, the colleges are recognizing the importance of these facts. A few leading colleges have already obtained answers; others have included that aim in their future plans. The increasing number of mental illnesses among veterans of World War II is an indication of the vastness of maladjustment existing among the general population although data concerning their previous status have not been compiled.

A case study review has indicated the causes and effects of maladjustment. That maladjustment can be prevented and that the school can take the initiative in a plan of prevention has been inferred.

What is wanted tomorrow must be put into the schools today. If the nation is to have morale, the school must build it.

Statistical factors have shown that maladjustment exists dangerously. Experimental factors have shown that mental security can be developed.

The handwriting is on the wall.

CONCLUSION

Inquiry has furnished adequate information from
which to evaluate the present educational procedures for
building morale. Justified criticism by the public, accusa-
tion by youth itself, and educational research show indis-
putable shortcomings. Both general and specific inadequacies
are easily discernable. Nevertheless, ascertaining particular-
ly has presented more difficulty. This has led to a searching
for definiteness on the part of educators that has resulted
in revealing discoveries.

Parents and the public persist in their somewhat
inclusive, yet vague, demand that the schools prepare youth
for meeting life's problems. From their observances they
have reached varied conclusions as to what they believe the
schools should be teaching - spelling, reading, health,
vocational efficiency, tolerance, buying, sacredness of
family life, worthy use of leisure, Christianity. Youth
insist that they have been given no solution to the problems
of family life, that they have not been taught the essentials
of economic and political life, that they have had to fight
wars that could not be prevented, that they have been given
nothing from which to develop any lasting moral values.
Failures as revealed by educational research are generalized
by Leonard in his discernment that the educational program

is inadequate in fixing skills, in imparting information, and in establishing desired behavior. A Regents' Inquiry into secondary education in New York schools concluded that although the schools of their state were as good as those in other states, they were failing to prepare youth for work, for citizenship, for healthful living, for inner life and growth. High who quotes from this Inquiry insists that moral purpose is the basis of an improved program. Goodykoontz cites attention to a poll of experts for American Magazine who concluded that the schools were failing in preparing young people for making a living, for democratic citizenship, and for personal and family responsibilities.

The greatest shortcoming, as seen by Leonard, is teaching democracy. This particular shortcoming is made more definite in the discovery of the Educational Policies Commission that the schools as a whole have failed to analyze the full demands of citizenship education in a democracy. Programs have grown by chance accumulation of materials rather than by broad and systematic plan. The American Association of School Administrators illuminates this definiteness more decisively in the perception that the democratic process is the essence of morale building.

Through these findings can the extent to which the present curriculum provides for the morale of youth be

determined. Educational programs possess no directive force.
They are not designed systematically. Rooted in the present
inadequacies is the failure of education to provide a program
with a definite purpose.

Planned procedure must replace a random means of
progression. Efficient method, systematic planning must
replace an incidental or accidental arrival. The great
numbers of individuals who fail to come through the stress
and strain, who fail to live victoriously are a threat to the
very bulwark of a democracy, a society in which every in-
dividual is of worth. An explicit plan of procedure converg-
ing on morale would provide for the inadequacies of our
educational offerings. Thus morale is the key to the needs
of youth.

Since education can contribute to each element of
morale, a program so directed is feasible. Discoveries have
clarified the process and tested its effectiveness. A know-
ledge of morale's composition and the assurance that education
can contribute to each of these elements illustrates the
feasibility of the design. Such a program is both practical
and attractive. Its directive force gives it power for
progress.

In a program constructed on a framework composed
of the elements of morale, education can develop a moral

spirit that makes people strong in war or in peace. Through such a program, the school would stimulate and coordinate the efforts of other morale building agencies. It would initiate social action for economic security for all. It would contribute to each element of morale through its own offerings.

Thus in an improved plan of instruction, the elements of morale become the framework of the educational program. This program is dependent upon these elements for meeting the needs of youth. Individuals possessing health, economic security, psychological security, confidence in associates, and loyalty to a common purpose are equipped for meeting life's problems whatever they might be. So in seeking morale, provision for existing inadequacies would be made.

Discoveries have revealed that democratic procedures are most valuable in stabilizing skills, in imparting information, and in stimulating desired behavior. Democratic experiences in which every individual can find his own welfare represented in the welfare of the group and in which he participates successfully as a valued member offer the means of living up to one's highest potentialities. Through successful achievement, aims are raised and interests are enlarged toward higher aims that give learning a flavor of delight. In an atmosphere influential to growth, democratic practice is enhanced and desirable attitudes are developed through
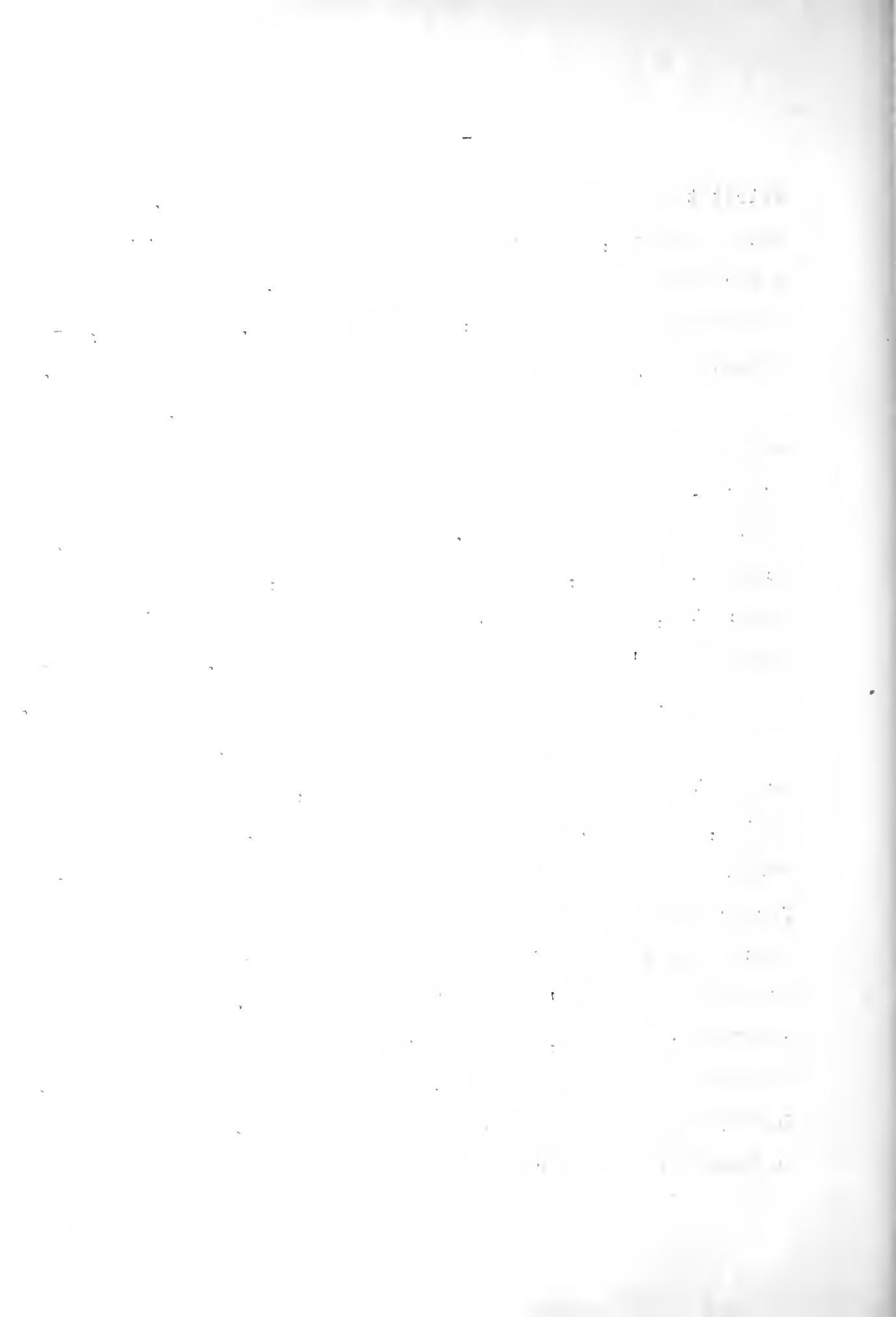
classroom studies, discussion, clubs, student council, drama, music, ritual that are stimulative to reflective thinking and intense feeling in relation to the democracy that America defends.

Attitudes are the means of motivating the factors of morale so that they permeate the entire being. Voluntary behavior is symbolic of feeling. Habits result from attitudes. In the plastic years are attitudes built. Experiences that give a knowledge of and love for the ideals of democracy promote habits of thinking and acting toward its goals, thus integrating procedures toward the desired resultant - morale.

The finger of accusation has been pointed at education. It has been placed in the balance and found wanting. A searching for the means of preparing youth to live victoriously represents a response to the exigencies of the societal and thought world. Through the discoveries resulting from this searching there can be glimpsed the dawn of a brighter future. The elements of morale provide the framework for a definite plan. Democratic experiences constructed on this framework are most effective. Experiences develop attitudes. Attitudes motivate the elements of morale. Voluntary behavior responds to these attitudes like melodious vibrations to the delicate touch of the musician.

Only the schools can build morale. The challenge is before every teacher in America.
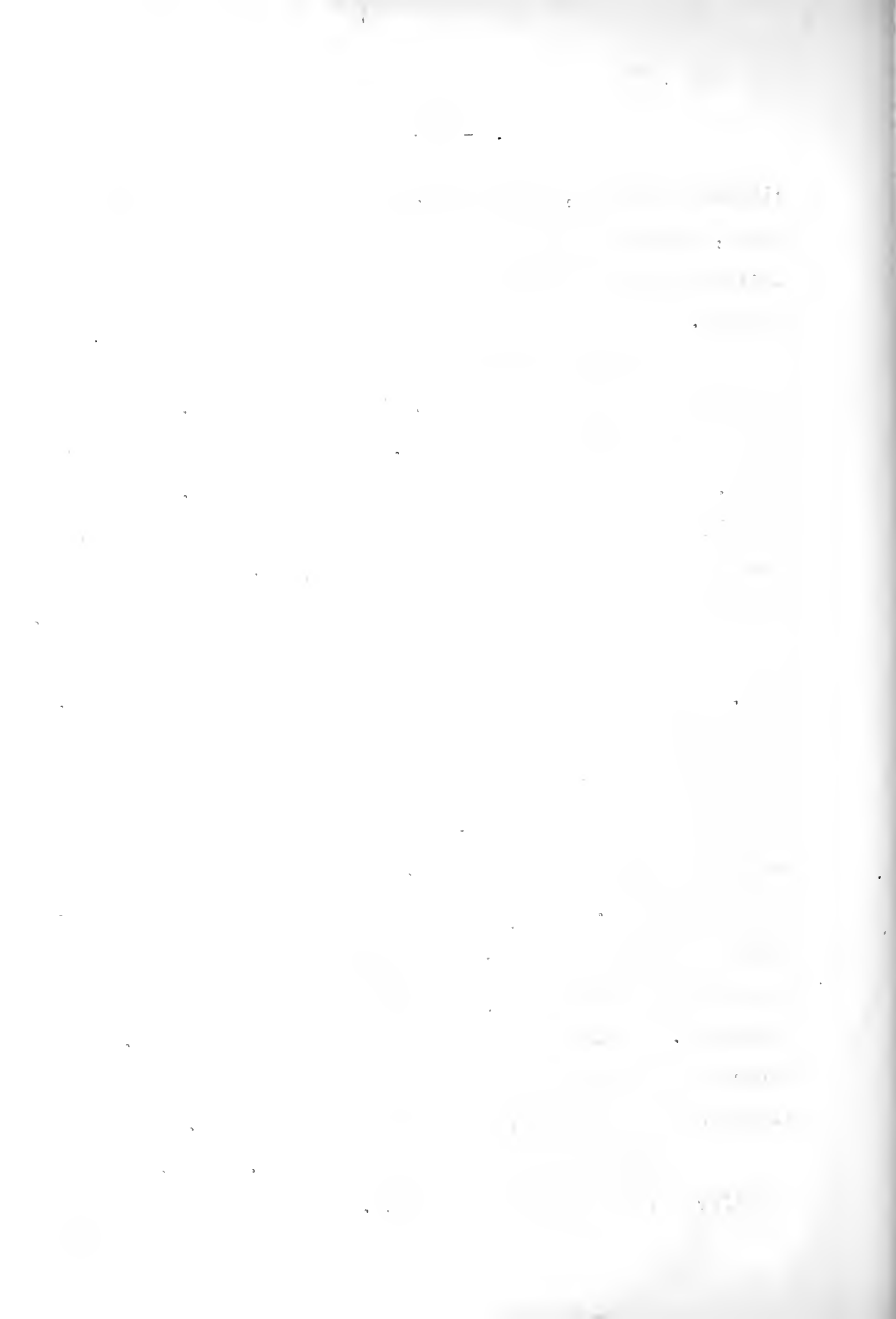
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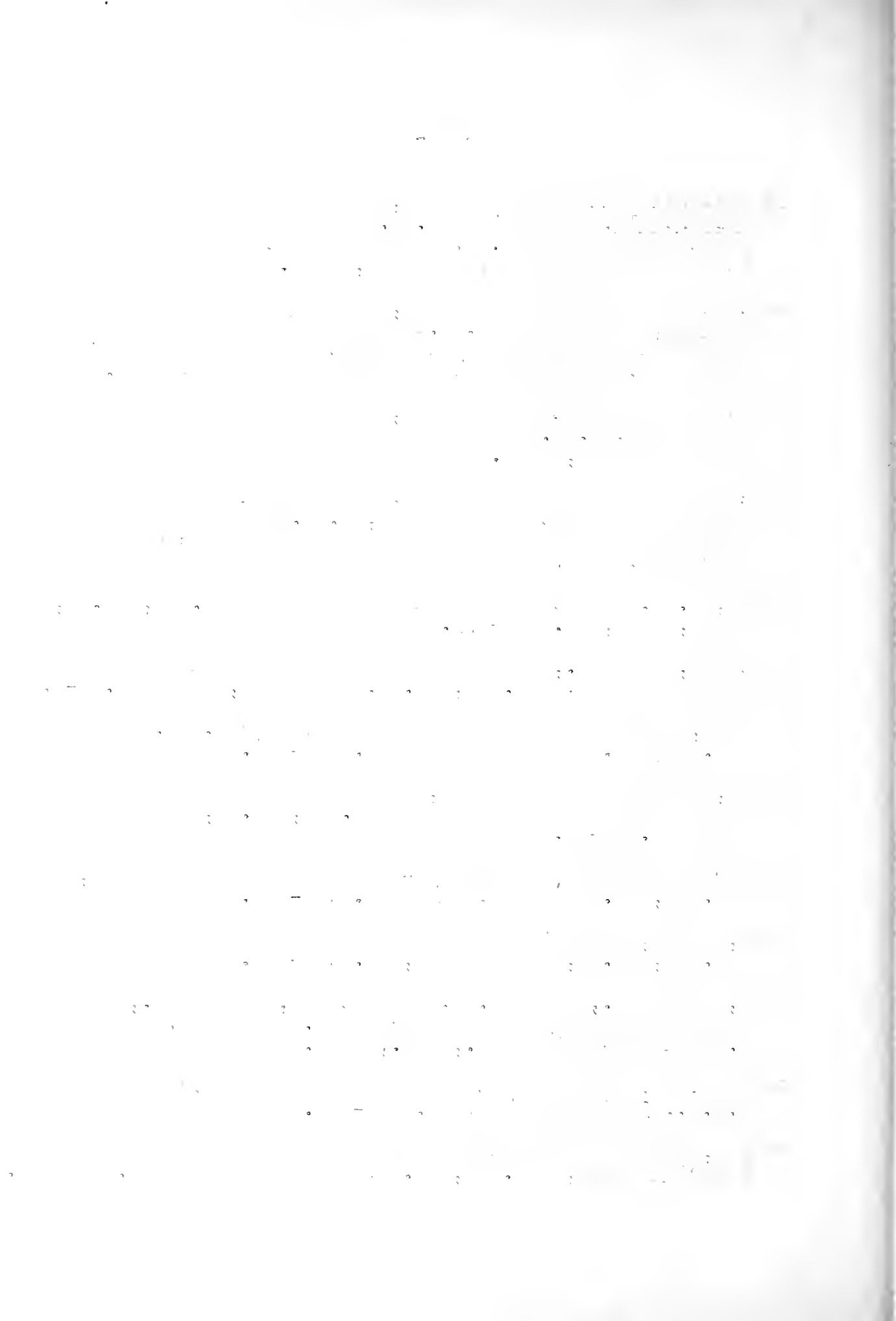
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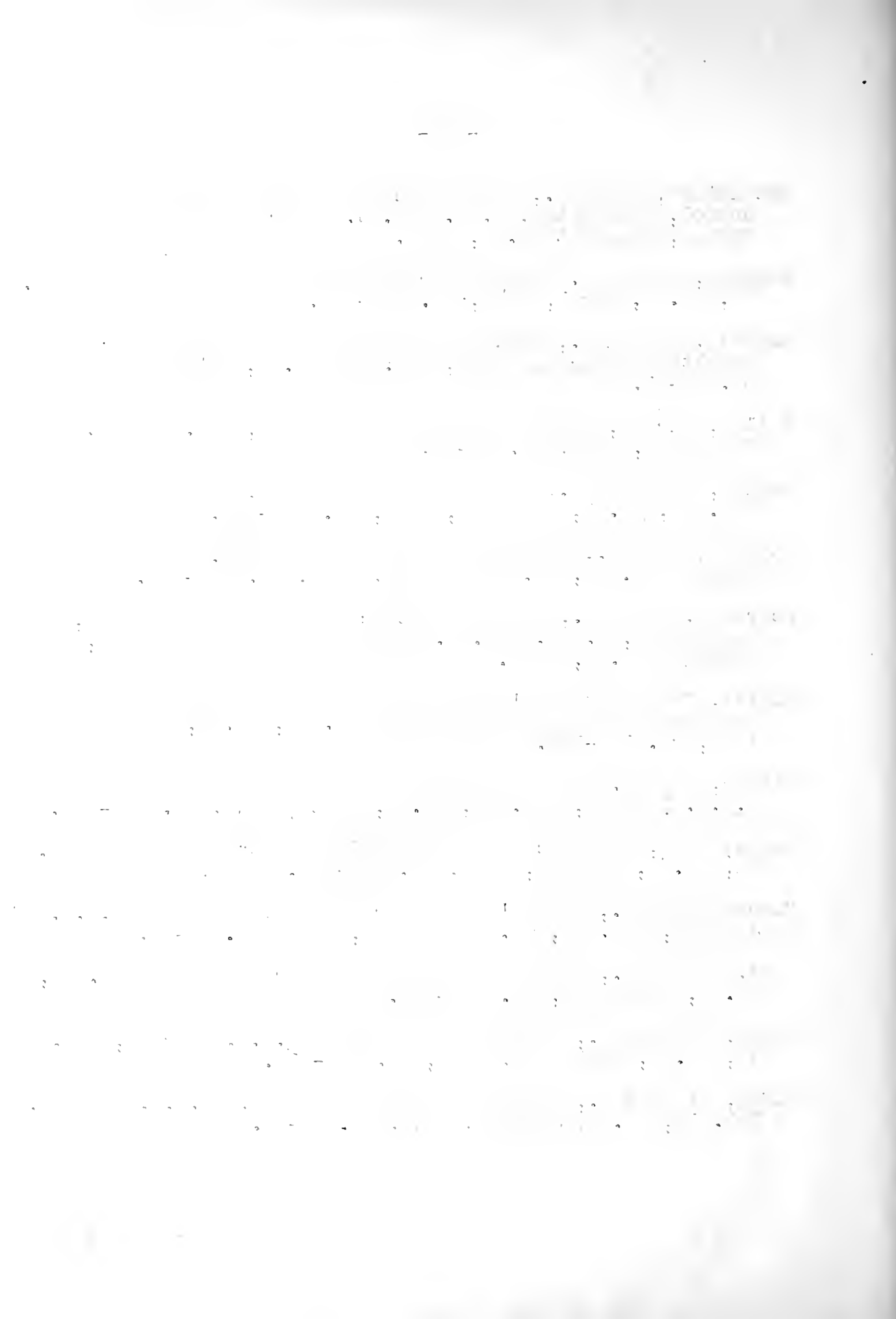
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APPENDIX

QUESTIONNAIRE

Number enlisting in Armed Forces during the period of 1941-1946:

Number of Men _____

Number of Volunteers _____

Number of Draftees _____

Number of Women _____

Number who showed maladjustments during training period:

Number of Men _____

Number of Women _____

Number that required psychiatric treatment during training period:

Number of Men _____

Number of Women _____

Number who went A.W.O.L. during the training period:

Number of Men _____

Number of Women _____

QUESTIONNAIRE

Number of Freshmen enrolling in 1947-1948 _____
Number of Men _____   Number Ex-Service _____
Number from Foreign Countries _____
States of the United States represented _____

Number of Women _____   Number Ex-Service _____
Number from Foreign Countries _____
States of the United States represented _____

- - - - - -

Number who revealed social maladjustments _____
Number of Men _____   Number Ex-Service _____
Number of Women _____   Number Ex-Service _____

- - - - - -

Number who dropped out apparently from cause of social maladjustment
Number of Men _____   Number Ex-Service _____
Number of Women _____   Number Ex-Service _____

Ability Tested	Possible Score	High Score of Group	Low Score of Group

May your school be mentioned in this study? _____

If not, may the information be utilized and the name of the school withheld? _____

Remarks:

	First Period			Third Period			Fifth Period		
Below are listed some of the habits, attitudes, and appreciations which the school considers important. A check mark (V) will be used to indicate the child's progress.	Outstanding Progress	Satisfactory Progress	Unsatisfactory Progress	Outstanding Progress	Satisfactory Progress	Unsatisfactory Progress	Outstanding Progress	Satisfactory Progress	Unsatisfactory Progress

1st Period   5th Period
Height_____Wt._____Height____Wt._____

GROWTH IN HEALTHFUL LIVING

Is careful about personal appearance
Practices good posture
Eats well
Has nice table manners
Participates in school sports
Observes safety rules

GROWTH IN SOCIAL LIVING

Cooperates with the group
Is dependable
Practices self-control
Respects own and school property
Respects authority
Is courteous and friendly
Listens while others are speaking
Uses quiet tones when talking

GROWTH IN WORK HABITS

Shows initiative
Shows ability to concentrate
Works independently
Follows directions promptly
Does neat and careful work
Completes work on time
Takes care of materials

GROWTH IN THE ARTS

Appreciates and enjoys good music
Is able to sing in tune
Participates in class music
Shows ability in expressing himself
through the use of art materials

The Junior Class

of

TURKEY CREEK HIGH SCHOOL

PRESENTS

Orchids

_an_d Onions

A THREE ACT FARCE BY
JAY TOBIAS

Under the Direction of
MRS. FAY RILEY

Turkey Creek Auditorium
Deeember 6, 1945

The Senior Class

-: of :-

TURKEY CREEK HIGH SCHOOL

PRESENTS

"LOVE YOUR NEIGHBOR"

A THREE ACT FARCE-COMEDY BY

ALBERT JOHNSON

UNDER THE DIRECTION OF

MRS. FAY RILEY

Turkey Creek Auditorium

AUGUST 9th and 15th, 1946

The Speech Class

of

Turkey Creek High School

presents

"Nine Girls"

A Play in a Prologue and Two Acts

by

WILFRID H. PRETTITT

and

"Dear Lady Be Brave"

A Farce Comedy in One Act

by

LLOYD L. SHELTON

———

Under the Direction of

MRS. FAY RILEY

———

TURKEY CREEK AUDITORIUM
December 12, 1944

Turkey Creek High School

Presents

"The Eve of St. Mark"

A Drama by

MAXWELL ANDERSON

Under the Direction of

MRS. FAY RILEY

▶

THURSDAY, AUGUST 16th, 1945

8:45 P. M.

TURKEY CREEK AUDITORIUM

THE SENIOR CLASS

of

Turkey Creek High School

presents

"BEST FOOT FORWARD"

A Three-Act Comedy By
John Cecil Holm

Under The Direction of
MRS. FAY RILEY

Turkey Creek Auditorium

August 26, 1943

PERSONAL DATA SHEET

Name: Fay C. Riley
Address: Keysville, Florida
Status: Married - one child

Education:
                    Undergraduate Level
University of Florida - 1933
Florida Southern College - 1936 to 1941
B. S. in Education - Florida Southern College, 1941
      Major: English   Minor: Social Studies

Principles of Interpretation   1944
Shakespeare 416   1944
Public Speaking 329   1944
Shakespeare 426   1944
Public Speaking 339   1945
Shakespeare 436   1945

                    Graduate Level
University of Florida - Orientation - Workshop   1947
Florida Southern College - Graduate School:
Elementary School Organization and Administration, Prof.
    Samuel T. Lastinger
Curriculum Problems, Prof. Edward L. Flemming
Principles of Guidance, Prof. Edward L. Flemming
Occupational Information and Analysis, Prof. Edward L. Flemming
Educational Research and Supervision - Administration, Dr.
    Thomas J. Wagner
Constitution and Social Problems, Prof. Donald A. Thompson
Exceptional Children - Administration and Supervision,
    Dr. Thomas J. Wagner
Methodology of Research, Dr. C. L. Murray

Teaching Experience:
Seventh and Eighth Grades, Principal, Keysville, Florida, 1929-36
Fifth and Sixth Grades, Trapnell, Hillsborough County, Florida,
    1936-1940
Senior High English and Speech, Turkey Creek, Hillsborough
    County, Florida, 1941-1947
Fourth Grade, Turkey Creek, Hillsborough County, Florida, 1947-48
English, Wimauma High School, Hillsborough County, Florida, 1948-

Work Experience:
Post Office, Keysville, Florida, 1921-1926
Store, Keysville, Florida, 1921-1926

<u>Other</u> <u>Experience</u>:
Director, Dramatic Society, Keysville Community Club, 1929-1934.
Dramatic Director, Turkey Creek High School, 1941-1946.
Sponsor Thespian Troupe 669, National Thespian Society,
      1945-1946.
President of Woman's Club, Cedar Grove Church, 1943-1945.
Pianist, Cedar Grove Church, 1921-1948.
Teacher Young People's Class, Cedar Grove Sunday School,
      1934-1948.
Baptist Training Union Director, Cedar Grove Church, 1947-1948.